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Attachments:

- A. Uzbekistan, October - December 1943
- B. Tadzhikistan (pp. 1-10) and Kirgiziya (pp. 11-18), October-December 1943
- C. Municipal Affairs, October-December 1943
- D. Kazakhstan, September 1946-June 1947 and April-June 1948
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RURAL ELECTRIFICATION. It cannot be denied that during these years of soviet rule the electrification of Uzbekistan had made great strides since in comparison with the pre-revolutionary period the production of electric power is known to have grown one hundred times. In regard to rural electrification Uzbekistan was, however, still lagging behind in spite of ample hydro resources available for the development of cheap electric power.

It has been calculated that the estimated hydro resources of rivers and canals in Uzbekistan would permit the erection of small hydro-electric power stations to an installed generating capacity of 150,000 kilowatts and of larger stations up to a total of 300,000 kilowatts. In addition, in many districts there were coal, peat and natural gas resources which could be used in generating power in rural areas.

The republic had industries manufacturing turbines, transformers, electric motors, transmission lines and other distribution equipment as well as manufacturing machinery using electric motive power. But in spite of these favourable factors Uzbekistan was sadly lagging behind in implementing electrification of its rural areas as envisaged by the post-war Five Year Plan. Generally speaking the tempo of construction of power projects in no way conformed to demand or to the potential resources of the republic.

Of one thousand electric stations envisaged under the post-war plan with a total capacity of 53,000 kilowatts only 173 stations of 7,160 kilowatts had so far been constructed while of 1,500 collective farms only 352 had been provided with electricity.

The number of kolkhoz and sovkhos farms and of machine tractor stations in Uzbekistan using electric current amounted to less than ten per cent. Progress in the Bokhara, Kashka Darya, Surkhan Darya and Khorezm districts and in the Kara Kalpak ASSR had been badly retarded. Neither was there a single district in the republic which had been completely electrified. As a matter of fact 80 regional centres had no electric power facilities and consequently no electric service.

Meanwhile the capacity of existing stations in rural areas was utilised only to the extent of 35 to 49% as electricity, even where available, was used primarily for domestic lighting and but to a negligible extent for other purposes.

Blame for these inadequate results was laid at the door of the Ministry of Agriculture which did not greatly exert itself over the problem of providing cheap electric power to kolkhoz farms and machine tractor stations and seemed to be uninterested in introducing electricity on kolkhoz farms for power irrigation or for the processing of agricultural produce. There was no department at the Ministry of Agriculture to deal with these problems and, as a matter of fact, not a single per-

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son among its personnel was actively interested in problems of rural electrification. By a decision of the Council of Ministers of the Uzbek Republic in June 1948 the Ministry of Agriculture was to have undertaken the complete electrification on an experimental basis of several kolkhoz farms so as to demonstrate the various uses for electricity in agriculture but this decision had not been so far implemented.

The Ministry of State Farms and the food, dairy and meat industries were likewise maintaining an attitude of complete neutrality in the matter of utilising electric power for sovkhoz (state farm) needs and had submitted no plans or blue prints for erection of power stations in 1949.

Neither was the "Uzbek Agricultural Electric Trust", an organization directly responsible for the construction of rural power stations, energetically implementing any of the existing schemes for rural power development. The regional offices of this trust were anyhow poorly equipped to undertake technical work and had not the necessary financial funds to do so.

Chairmen of Regional Executive Councils, particularly of the Samarkand, Bokhara and Andijan Soviets, were evidently also not interested in rural electrification projects as up to date they had given no assistance to regional offices entrusted with the electrification of collective and state farms and of machine-tractor stations.

About two years ago the Central Asian Coal Trust "Sredazugol" the "Elektrokabel" Works, the Textile Kombinat, the "Electrolamp" and Voroshilov works and other leading Uzbek industrial plants undertook to provide assistance to collective farms in the construction of power stations but had by now evidently forsaken their promises.

The author of the article in the Uzbek paper "Pravda Vostoka" from which we quote, asserted in conclusion that the present situation could no longer be tolerated. Plans for the electrification of rural areas were to be urgently implemented in line with the natural and economic resources of the regions for which they were intended with the maximum utilisation of hydro-energy resources. No further delay could, in his opinion, be tolerated in a republic which had not only the natural resources but also the man power to harness them speedily.

Several experimental collective and state farms and machine-tractor stations were planned to be fully electrified in 1949. The complete experimental electrification of the Uadil, the Yangi Yul and the Alty Aryk districts were especially recommended to be urgently completed to demonstrate to Uzbek farmers the wide uses of electricity in agriculture.

IRRIGATION. Considerable results were achieved last year in extending in Uzbekistan irrigation facilities. The capacity of the Katta Kurgan reservoir (the Uzbek Sea) was brought up during the year to 350,000 and that of the Urta-Tokai reservoir in the Ferghana valley to 50,000 ~~sq~~ cub. metres. Water distribution means were also extended and Uzbekistan had now an irrigation network totalling in length 200,000 kilometres and watering a territory of 400,000 sq. kilometres.

According to a recent (20-11-49) press item "the central place in the 1949 programme was occupied by the large Urta-Tokai and the Katta Kurgan reservoirs. At the Urta-Tokai site, located on the Kassan-Sai river, a dam 45 metres high, has already been erected and some 50 million cubic metres of water had been accumulated in the gigantic rocky depression above it.

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The dam was to be raised at a later date still higher and the capacity of the reservoir eventually doubled, which would bring under cultivation new lands along the Chirchik main canal. Recently a blasting job representing a major achievement in engineering was completed in the Urta-Tozaki mountains. All told, 100,000 cub. metres of rock and earth fell in position in conformity with calculations to form part of the body of the dam. The Kassan valley when irrigated is expected to produce the richest yields of cotton, rice and grapes of all Soviet Central Asia.

On completion the Katta Kurgan reservoir near Samarkand will be five times bigger than the Urta-Tozaki and will provide a steady supply of water to the Zeravshan valley noted for its high grades of cotton. Work here was first begun in 1940, but had to be interrupted during the war. Already by the spring of 1949 the capacity of the Katta Kurgan reservoir was to be brought up to 500,000 cub. metres to ensure which a concrete dam would be built early this year on the Kara Darya.

Large works were planned in the Hungry Steppe to increase the irrigated area in the Havast district. The first section of the Balautsky canal had been actually completed and would enable to bring under cultivation another 4,000 hectares of land. The North Kashkent canal had likewise been extended and its additional distribution system now served an area of over 4,500 hectares in the Tashkent, Yangi Yul and Chinas districts.

In building canals and dams not less than four million cubic metres of earth had to be removed this year. 75% of this work was to be done by excavators, bulldozers, explosives and other mechanical means. In the construction of new hydro-technical work the volume of concrete and stone work amounted to 210,000 cub. metres. All transport of the necessary building materials on these jobs and the laying of concrete were to be fully mechanized.

In the Tashkent district considerable work was to be carried out to improve drainage conditions in Mirzachul and along the Syr Darya.

Last year's work on many construction sites was considerably delayed and could not be completed within the prescribed time limits. The cost of constructing the Katta Kurgan reservoir and of the Akhumbabaev canal was at the same time greatly exceeded. To avoid the repetition of these drawbacks more attention was to be paid in 1949 to raise the productivity of labour and to eliminate unproductive charges. (Pravda Vostoka, 16.1.49.)

KAZAKHSTAN

BALKHASH SMELTERS. On November 24th, 1948, the Balkhash Copper Smelting Plant celebrated its tenth anniversary. The city of Balkhash and the Smelting Plant nearby comprised an industrial area which was originally developed in a desert bearing the ominous name of the Hungry Steppe after the Kourad copper and other non-ferrous metals deposits were first discovered near Lake Balkhash by the soviet geologist M.P. Russakov. In 1929 the Council of Labour and Defence (STO) passed its historical resolution on the development of non-ferrous metals in Kazakhstan and by the middle of 1931 construction gangs were coming ashore at Bertys harbour where on the desolate shores of Balkhash lake they found hardly any human habitation except a few felt yurtas. The construction job was from then on taken up in earnest though it was initially

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seriously handicapped by the necessity to bring all building materials in those pioneering days by slow camel transport or across the lake from Burluy Tyube on rafts. Freight costs were obviously fantastic and a single tree log delivered at the construction site often cost over a thousand roubles.

The construction of an experimental ore-enriching plant was started in June, 1933. Work on the power station was commenced only in 1935 but was appreciably accelerated on the completion of the last section of the 500 km. Karaganda-Bertys railway in the autumn of 1935. In May, 1936, the first "ochered" (section) of the power station became operative. By April, 1938, though only a section of the ore-enriching plant was working, its capacity already exceeded that of all the ore concentration plants in the Urals. In June, 1938, the first reverberatory furnaces were completed and by November 24, a converter was also in operation.

Much is being made by reviewers of the brief history of the Balkhash industrial giant, a plant alleged to have been built according to the most up-to-date technological demands, of the fact that this plant had no foreign trade marks, since the Ukrainians, the "Pravda Works" and other Leningrad workshops, managed to supply to this Kazakhstan plant all the required equipment. Reviewers maintain that the ten years in the existence of the plant had witnessed nothing, but uninterrupted progress and a constant growth of technological and economic indexes. Especially perfected, though with no addition to equipment, were the extraction processes resulting in the recovery of thousands of tons of metal which would otherwise have been wasted. Through the improvement of ore concentration methods production since 1940 had been, it was alleged, doubled. Time required for melting ores in converters had also been materially reduced.

In the opinion of the present management there were still considerable shortcomings in operating the Balkhash plant. Average productions indexes by successive shifts working under identical conditions in the same workshop continued to be far from uniform while the percentage of workmen not fulfilling their prescribed working norms remained inconveniently high. On the date of the tenth anniversary, the first task awaiting the management, the party and the local trade unions was therefore to raise the productivity of recalcitrant workmen to the level of production of more advanced workers. Production was to be further intensified and streamlined and the low coefficient of utilisation of existing equipment considerably raised. The percentage of defective goods in production which was high had also to be cut. The management of the Balkhash plant complained at the same time that the Karaganda railway was not satisfactorily servicing the plant and that this interfered with the uninterrupted supply of raw materials and the consequent smooth flow of production.

Meanwhile the city of Balkhash was steadily developing. A departure from usual city planning practices was the granting of facilities for the construction of houses for workers who preferred small individual cottages to the flats in the multi-storied houses erected in the early history of the city. Regular city blocks were first put up in 1935 and now occupied a considerable area. Block A, for instance, had no less than 600 flats. The city had a mining and metallurgical technicum, a technical college and three "Factory and Works" schools, a stadium, Turkish baths and a laundry Kombinat. Tree groves, gardens and parks of poplars and wild acacia had been planted on the stony sandy soil within the city area. There was also a botanical garden with a wide variety of plants. Apple trees planted only a few years ago were already bearing fruit and all kinds of berries grew in abundance.

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The steppe around had been transformed by man, while advanced urban conditions were in their turn transforming the habits and modes of living of many of the steppe nomads. With the growth of city amenities and the improvement of living conditions an improvement in labour efficiency and in labour productivity had also been achieved and "more than 9,000 workmen were already exceeding their prescribed norms which was in itself a good augury for the future."

TRADE UNION OBJECTIVES. Trade Union aims and objectives in Kazakhstan were recently newly defined by the Secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party (b) of Kazakhstan. They are worth recapitulating as they disclose a growing tendency on the part of the Communist Party to utilise to a maximum trade union activities for the furthering of party policies and in the struggle for the eventual introduction of communism. Meanwhile the current aims of the party remained mostly pragmatic in character and were primarily intended to mobilise trade union activities for the fulfillment of the Five Year Plan in four years.

The main current task for trade unions, as outlined by Shaiyakhmetov, was to promote these socialist competition drives which had for some time been widely regarded as an effective means for the build up of a classless socialist economy. Socialist competition drives were to be energetically pursued in the current year as it was thought that the successful realisation of the Five Year Plan in the course of four years depended on the progress of economic development in the third year of the "pyatiletka". 1949 was considered the decisive year for the accomplishment of this formidable task and the universal enforcement of socialist competition drives this year was therefore a matter of honour for each individual trade union member and for Kazakhstan trade union organisation as a whole.

It was readily conceded that wherever trade unions had been actively engaged among industrial workers in the promotion of socialist competition drives a more normal and rhythmic production regime at the plants concerned became clearly discernable; there, however, competition drives were absent there predominated a formal listless attitude towards work which led to disruption of normal workshop activities. Socialist drives of the formal bureaucratic type as practised, for instance, by trade unionists at the Chinkent Lead Plant had to be strongly disapproved of. Agreements for socialist competition at this plant contained clauses condemning absenteeism, late attendance at work or the want of discipline. But the elimination of these practices had little to do with socialist competition objectives as they came under recognised workshop and factory rules. The inclusion of such objectives, as a matter of fact, lowered the aims of the socialist competition movement which aspired to nobler things and was a basic aspect of trade union activities in the present transitional stage of economic reconstruction from socialism to communism.

Another important task was the maintenance of a drive for the maximum utilization of factory equipment and factory production reserves and of the great potentialities of industrial undertakings and kolkhos, sovkhos and machine-tractor station economics which were seldom fully utilised and were, at times, even purposely circumscribed to enable the management to maintain leisurely working conditions rather than to strive for higher norms of production.

Trade unions were to actively participate in the struggle for a regime of economy in all sectors of national life and principally for an economical expenditure of raw materials, electricity and fuel. They were

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to assist in the maintenance of higher levels of production and in the elimination of wanton carelessness in the use of workshop and factory equipment. Trade unionists were to fully participate in these tasks as the prevalent shortcomings threw an untoward reflection not only on the efficiency of managerial staffs in industries and agriculture or on party guidance but on trade unions as well.

Trade unions had the honourable task of drawing within their sphere of influence all Soviet Union workers and employees and of inculcating them with a true spirit of Soviet patriotism and a proper understanding of the Union's common socialist interests. Their next, no less immediate, task was to protect the interests, of their members and to strive to improve conditions under which workers laboured and lived. A deplorable tendency still persisted among certain trade unions not to pay sufficient attention to the improvement of factory and mill conditions and to the elimination of legitimate labour grievances as it was erroneously considered that in a socialist state there could be no one to safeguard against. This, however, was a wrong contention as there were even now many "chinovniki" (bureaucrats) among managers of industrial plants who neglected to comply with soviet factory laws and disregarded the legitimate needs of labour. Against such bureaucrats, for whom obviously not even written laws existed, it was the duty of trade unions to fight relentlessly as the improvement of factory and living conditions remained a primary task even in a socialist economy. Workers of the local Oil Trust lived, for instance, in buildings hardly fit for human habitation. But in spite of the prevalence of these deplorable housing conditions the "Kazneftstroi" had done mighty little to accelerate the execution of current building plans. Similarly "Kazakhstanneft" had completed its building plans in 1948 only to the extent of 43.5%. But trade union executives though aware of these facts seemed not in the least perturbed and readily endorsed the excuses submitted by construction trust for unreasonable delays in completing current building projects.

Kazakhstan trade unions were accordingly admonished to do their best to promote better housing conditions in the cities and labour cantonments of Kazakhstan and to create within the shortest possible time adequate housing conditions for all trade union members.

There were many public dining rooms, cafeterias and restaurants where the most elementary demands of sanitation and hygiene were completely disregarded, in which few comforts were provided for the public and the level of catering remained uniformly low. This was also true of services in shops, public laundries and baths, in hairdressing saloons, etc. The duty of trade unions was to assist in the removal of such conditions by establishing continuous public control by members of the local trade union organisations.

Trade Unions had great duties to perform on the cultural front which provided them great opportunities for the promotion of cultural habits and behaviour. Before the October revolution Kazakhstan was a backward part of the former Russian Empire and much remained to be done in this respect. It was perfectly true that condition for universal literacy had been established but this was not a panacea for all ills. The word culture certainly meant more than only literacy. It presupposed from those who used it cultural behaviour, a cultured attitude towards work, an aspiring for knowledge, proper use of one's spare time and a striving towards an all around development of man's creative faculties.

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Trade unions of Kazakhstan had the means to achieve much of this civilising work. They controlled over 3,000 cultural centres and 530 clubs and palaces of culture some of which were fairly active in the promotion of cultural amenities. But not all of the clubs carried out their work in the same efficient way. Many remained, in fact, only dancing halls which catered for nothing else but dancing and occasionally cinema shows. Such limitations were apparently caused by the fact that managers either ran their clubs as commercial enterprises, or simply failed to comprehend the growing demands of their members to have clubs converted into centres of mass cultural and political work. Trade Unions had at the same time to raise the ideological level of the cultural and political sections of clubs which were under their guidance. It was apparently necessary for them to imbue their members with a fuller understanding of the great importance of the soviet social and political framework and of its socialist economy and of the advantages of the soviet state system and of soviet science over the "decadent" bourgeois science of Europe and America.

Trade unions were to participate to a greater degree in the promotion of physical culture among their members in which task they were at present not sufficiently active. For instance, in a recent trade union and komsomol rally in which 213,000 participated, only 43,000 were trade unionists, while the union of flour mill workers with a nominal roll of 18,000 members had sent to this rally only 43 entrants. Instead of promoting genuine sporting conditions at sports rallies and physical competitions trade unions frequently hired professional athletes to represent their organisations. Members of football teams had often no connection whatsoever with the trade unions they represented though they were out in the field to protect their honour. Only recently, for instance, the "Medik" organisation when taking part in a football match had only three medical students among the eleven members of the team. This practice of substituting hirelings was not, of course, to the credit of trade unions. It was also alleged that insufficient attention was paid to the physical training of Kazakh youth.

Concluding his remarks Shaiyakhmetov invited members of the Conference to perform their duties within the framework of the organisations they represented in conformity with democratic principles, to regularly convoke and attend union meetings, to elect officials after careful consideration of their abilities and to insist on the proper checking and control of union funds. In his opinion trade union cadres were to "flourish" which in itself adversely affected the unions. Among these cadres were mostly young workers who being new to the movement had no experience in trade union work. He even thought that in a sense there was a marked absence of "Bolshevik" discipline and order in the day to day running of Kazakh Trade Unions. Fees were not regularly collected and the fact that hundreds of members failed to pay fees regularly or did not pay at all glaringly disclosed the absence of strict discipline and the weakness of the unions. In view of the prominent constructive tasks facing trade unions in the immediate future discipline was from now on to be most rigorously enforced.

According to Shaiyakhmetov there were communists who were not much interested in trade unionism and who failed to comprehend that the strength and importance of trade unionism was being guided and led by the party. The party's duty was therefore to strengthen its hold of the trade union movement and to follow its activities from day to day in order to consolidate the part played by trade unions in industrial enterprises, in transport, on machine-tractor stations, on kolkhozes and sovkhos farms, in a word, in the entire economy of the Kazakh Union.

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THE PROBLEM OF THE CASPIAN. For some years the so-called problem of the Caspian Sea, that is, of the disastrous lowering of its level since 1930, has been attracting the steady attention of Soviet scientists. By 1948 the drop in its level had reached two metres. The waters of the Caspian were undoubtedly becoming consistently shallower and in the north the shore line had receded in parts up to 20-30 metres. The Bay of Kaidak in the north-eastern part of the Caspian had already become a lake and it was estimated that the total surface area of the Caspian had by now contracted by more than 25,000 sq. kilometres. In 1948 its level was in fact the lowest for the last four hundred years.

What were the reasons for this spectacular and ruinous drop and would the Caspian Sea's former capacity and level ever be restored? A booklet recently published by I.I. Benashvili answers these questions and summarises the results of research and exploration attained by a number of Soviet scientists. The author, who in the past had led several Caspian scientific expeditions of the Soviet Oceanographic Institute, gives in a popular form an account of recent researches by Soviet scientists on the Caspian problem and a brief description of the regime of the Caspian, one of the most peculiar seas of the Soviet Land. Greatly elongated in a southern direction (over two thousand kilometres separate its northern and southern shores) the Caspian extends over several climatic zones. While its average January temperature along the north-east coast was minus eleven degrees centigrade, along the south-west coast this average was already plus six. When the north Caspian suffered winter conditions with frost and snowstorms, the shores of its southern part and the mountain slopes in the south got rapidly covered with green vegetation and the sun quickly acquired the warmth of spring.

The Caucasian mountains protected the flourishing valleys of Transcaucasia from the cold northern winds. This meant that the masses of cold air coming from the north would, on reaching the Caucasus, turn towards the sea to cause storms in mid-Caspian and the famous north winds of Baku. On their way south across the Caspian these air streams would, at the same time, get gradually warmed up mitigating seasonal transition in the area.

But the Caspian Sea was noted not only for its sharp climatic contrasts but also the variety of physico-geographic conditions. Being a closed-in basin it was naturally liable to considerable fluctuations of its level.

Systematic observations of the level of the Caspian were started only one hundred years ago. However, Academician L.S. Berg managed to establish data on the level of the Caspian in much more distant times which led him to conclude that periods of low levels alternated without any evident regularity with rises and that there was no foundation for the opinion that the level of the Caspian was becoming irrevocably lower.

On the basis of calculation made by Soviet scientists the author provides the following information of the "balance-sheet" of the Caspian. The Volga, Ural, Kuma, Terek, Emba and several other rivers were the main sources for replenishing the waters of the Caspian. During a single year these rivers delivered to the Caspian over 325 cubic kilometres of water or 83% of the entire inflow of which the Volga accounted for 78%. About 71 cubic kilometres of water came from atmospheric precipitation, while inflow from underground sources did not exceed one per cent.

This huge volume of water flowing annually into the Caspian was expended mostly through evaporation. According to recent calculations a layer of water equal in depth to 980 mm was lost yearly through evapo-

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ration (in cubic measures 394 cub. kilometres). About 22 cubic kilometres of water were also lost through Caspian waters flowing into the Kara Bogaz Gol Bay.

According to the author, these were average calculations. Recently the water balance of the Caspian had, however, become completely upset. From 1930 to 1946 the inflow of water from surface sources had been annually short by 60 cub. kilometres or nearly by 20%. The main cause for this was that between 1930 and 1945 the huge Volga basin had suffered from an exceptional and persistent shortage of precipitation. The river had become shallow and the Caspian had failed in consequence to receive from this source not less than a total of 964 cub. kilometres of water. Less water was also brought to the Caspian by other rivers.

The deficiency in the volume of water emptied by the Volga into the Caspian was according to Benashvili, the result of severely dry winters and poor snowfalls within the territories of the Volga basin. Since 1941 there had been, however, faint signs of a change in atmospheric conditions over European USSR and Western Siberia while in the winter of 1946 this change became quite clearly pronounced. The author's conclusion was therefore that a further lowering in the level of the Caspian in the course of the next few years was not to be expected. On the contrary, it was more likely that the level of this inner sea would first become stabilised and then gradually but irresistibly improve. (Red Fleet 6 1 49)

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Tajikistan in 1949. All Moscow newspapers published on January 15 a letter to Stalin from members of the Seventh Congress of the Communist Party of Tajikistan. This letter stated among other things that the Tajik Republic was in 1948 the first of the cotton growing republics of the Union of the Soviet Republics to fulfill the State Plan for cotton deliveries also that the republic had reached its 1950 targets both in harvest yields and in the gross output of raw cotton while many of its industries had exceeded their pre-war level of production, its textile industry attaining the production level set for 1950. In line with this growing prosperity, living standards of the working population, it was alleged, had steadily improved.

As pointed out in the letter, the Seventh Congress had set before the Party the task of fulfilling the current Five-year Plan in industries by the 20th anniversary of the Tajik Republic, that is, by December 15, 1949, and generally of producing greater quantities of non-ferrous and rare metals, of coal, oil and cotton and of foodstuffs.

The Conference opened in Stalinabad on December 20, after an interval of eight years since the previous party rally. It was attended by 265 of a total of 278 delegates and was opened by Gafurov, Secretary of the Communist Party, who in a long speech enumerated the tasks of the party in achieving its ultimate object of building up a communist classless society. In its appraisal of the world situation its members laboured under the illusion that the "trottering foundations of imperialism were no longer secure, that the impoverishment of capitalist countries were deepening, that an acute economic crisis was rapidly approaching and that reactionary Anglo-American circles were feverishly preparing for a desperate aggressive war against the USSR and the countries of the new democracy, while the prestige of the USSR throughout the world was irresistibly growing."

Such was the general ideological atmosphere at the conference whose task it was to work out a fighting programme for further action, to appraise the achievements of the party during these last eight years and to analyse and remove all shortcomings which interfered with an improvement of party instruction and the strengthening of the party as an organ of political guidance. It was also steadfastly maintained in Gafurov's speech that though all roads led to communism this millennium could not be arrived at without a struggle, while the most important pragmatic move in this struggle in his opinion, was to complete the Five-Year Plan within the span of four years.

It was revealed at the conference that during the war years the economy of Tajikistan had to be fundamentally reconstructed and a number of new industries started to conform to the military needs of the Soviet Union and provide for the defence of the country. Existing Tajik plants at that time had to be greatly expanded to accommodate industrial concerns evacuated from European Russia. Consequent upon this rapid development many untoward tendencies developed in the economic set-up of the republic. There was a sharp decline in cotton harvest yields, especially of long-staple cotton which became evident already in 1944. Cattle-breeding during the war had suffered, Kolchoz economies, especially in border and mountain regions

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were also allowed to deteriorate. The textile industry was no exception to this general decline due to lack of proper supervision and control and other war factors. Party activities and guidance, it was admitted, had appreciably deteriorated in spite of the fact that party membership had considerably increased. A total of 17,014 party candidates and new members were registered during the war (9,777 candidates and 7,237 party members) and since the war another 12,822 members and candidates had joined the ranks of the party. But their election was not always properly conducted. Enrollment of candidates was often wholesale. Many party candidates were allowed to disregard the time limits for their final confirmation as members. It was generally admitted that the spread of Marxist-Leninist teachings was also not uniform or of a high level though the acquiring of a proper and stable ideological foundation of Marxism-Leninism was of paramount importance. A republic adjoining the colonial east, this proximity to the border, it was thought, laid upon the Tajiks an added responsibility considering the part they were to play in the future destinies of Asia. The level of political enlightenment had to be consequently improved by all means and no allowances were to be further made in demanding from the Tajiks less responsibilities than from Russians. A rhetorical question was asked in this connection: "Why should our ministers be regarded as if they were of a lower standard than ministers of the Russian federation or our secretaries of regional committees below their Russian counterparts?"

In the light of deliberations of this party conference and from other available materials Tajikistan's agricultural and industrial progress in 1948 could be assessed as follows.

Deliveries of COTTON to the State were in 1948 below expectations. Fourteen cotton growing districts had failed to fulfill their contracted obligations and 547 kolkhoz farms or over 52% of the collective farms of the republic were by January, 1949, in arrears in their cotton deliveries. Adverse conditions which had affected cotton cultivation in 1948, it was admitted, could not, however, be outlived with the passing of the year and would affect harvest yields even in 1949 as preparing the fields for spring sowing in the 1949 season was much behind schedule. Few irrigation improvements had been introduced and little had actually been done to accumulate local non-chemical fertilizers which continued to be burned up as fuel throughout the republic.

The production target for raw cotton for 1949 of 350,000 tons was to be increased by 1953 to 500,000 tons and plans to achieve this had been endorsed by the Seventh Conference of the Tajik Communist Party. To outsiders it was not quite clear, how this could be accomplished considering the not too brilliant results of the 1948 season. Exact harvesting figures for 1948 had nowhere been published, at least we saw none in current press reports, though we did come across an intriguing statement by Raseulov, Chairman of the Tajik Council of Ministers, that the 1953 target of 500,000 tons exceeded actual cotton deliveries to the State in 1948 by two and a half times. Gafurov had also admitted that the 300,000 ton target in 1948 would have been achieved, had sowings been completed early in March and harvesting conditions in consequence brought forward by fifteen days. To achieve the new 500,400 target it was planned to add one hundred thousand hectares of irrigated lands to the present area under cotton. This in its turn, would create a shortage of land workers, as to put under cultivation and additional 100,000 hectares would require a contingent of from fifty to sixty thousand workers who could be made available only through the forced and rapid colonization of new cotton lands and the migration of impoverished kolkhoz peasants from mountain highlands the continued existence of which had been found economically precarious and could not be maintained without increased government grants.

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To reach the new target it was necessary to overcome the considerable fluctuations in harvest yields on kolkhoz farms. 140 "Backward" kolkhoz farms on an area of 12,000 hectares had collected in 1948 less than an average of 15 centners of short-staple cotton. Another set of 101 kolkhoz farms had collected on 10,000 hectares an average of only ten centners of long-staple cotton while still another batch of 45 kolkhoz farms even less than seven centners. Some of the more progressive kolkhoz farms had meanwhile raised their yields to an average of 45 centners for short-staple cotton on 150 hectares, to 43 centners on 153 hectares, to 41 on 108 hectares, to 38.5 centners on 100 hectares, to 35 on 172 hectares, to 34.5 on 217 hectares, to 33.2 on 233 hectares and to 30 on 250 hectares for long-staple cotton. It was considered quite possible, however, to reach a more uniform level of yields as the differences in yields, as shown above, were seldom due to soil or climatic conditions or such other "objective" causes but more to faulty administration, culpable negligence and idleness, to gross violations of the Agricultural Artel Charter and such like causes. The production level of "refractory" collective farms was by all means to be raised to that of the more progressive farms. In 1948 the average yield for the whole of Tajikistan was 18.8 centners per hectare or 22 centners for short-staple cotton and 16 for the long-staple variety. The 1949 target for raw cotton was, however, to be set at 50 and 40 centners respectively which, it was hoped, would assure a harvest of 350,000 tons.

In 1913 Tajik cotton growers produced 30,000 tons of inferior quality cotton while in 1940 they had produced six times more. In harvest yields Tajikistan occupied first place in the USSR. Nevertheless, even Tajikistan's yield remained low and Vakhsh valley cultivators were given the task to raise their average cotton yields by eight centners per hectare while other cotton growers by ten. Nothing was to be overlooked in fighting for these increased targets to reach, which depended, it was admitted, mostly on the human factor. Sowings were to be completed throughout the republic in March and by February 1, kolkhoz farms were to be fully prepared for the sowing campaign. A better organization of labour on kolkhoz farms was also recommended. The common cultivator was to be repeatedly approached with appeals, for increased exertions and efforts on stakhanovite lines since many kolkhoz workers were not fulfilling their duties towards their motherland and the Soviet Union and were consequently now admonished to fall in step with their politically and socially more advanced comrades and to present a united front in the fight for higher cotton yields.

Reports for 1948 reveal that the low yields of CERNALS were nowhere improved due to the poor field work of kolkhoz farmers, delays in sowings, a general shortage of modern agricultural machinery and its practically total absence in the high mountain regions of the republic where harvest yields per hectare seldom exceeded 15 to 16 centners.

The target for cereals and oil-bearing plants for 1949 was placed at 750,000 tons to be raised by 1950 to 8000,000 which, it was thought, could be comfortably reached if greater attention was paid to the time factor in sowing, to careful soil cultivation, to greater introduction of mechanisation and a more wide use of local fertilisers. Socialist competitions were also to be encouraged and fuller use made of the experience of stakhanovite kolkhoz workers reaped for their past record achievements.

More consideration was to be given to the conservation and build up of the soil. To prevent erosion detailed afforestation plans were to be evolved with the next few years. The grandiose plans for afforestation and the reclaiming of 300 million acres of land recently decided upon by the USSR were to be applied to Tajik territory as well. Forest were growing well on "bogor" lands and further attention was to be given to their intensive

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development and, where necessary, strict preservation, as there were districts (Garm) where forests were used up for fuel and where fruit and mulberry trees wantonly cut down even when coal available for the heating of schools, hospitals and administration offices was not fully utilised.

Targets for cattle breeding had not been carried out in 1948 in respect of cows and horses, though horses actually showed an increase of 13%, cattle of 8.7% and sheep and goats of 13.6% which was a considerable improvement against the previous decline in the number of cattle. But this overall progress had been patchy. In the Gorno-Badakhshan region it may have been spectacular (cattle 12.5%, horses 10%, cows 23%, sheep and goats 10%) but elsewhere much less so, as a large number of cattle perished annually from epidemic diseases and a still larger number were slaughtered to meet the daily needs of kolkhoz farmers.

Though the average annual milk yield per cow in Tajikistan for the last eight years had fluctuated between 271 to 382 litres and in the Garm and Kirovabad districts reached only 200 litres, the target for 1949 was fixed at 700 litres and for 1950 as high as 800 litres. Miracles were thus expected. Considering the poor average results over a number of years, these new targets could hardly be reached and their fixing at such high levels was presumably prompted more by irresponsible publicity than by a realistic approach to the task of improving the breed of cattle and ensuring higher milk yields. The target for sheepswool was less spectacular. It was intended to collect per sheep in 1949 an average of 1.6 kilos of wool and in 1950 1.8 against the present low average of 1.2 kilos which low yield was attributed partly to poor pasture conditions. It was also admitted that sowings of lucerne had not been carried out in fulfillment of previously set targets for crop rotation either in 1947 or last year and that the total area under lucerne in 1948 had decreased by one half since 1941.

Among more specific current tasks was the improvement of the Bessar and caracul breed of sheep, the creation of a stable pasture base, the protection of cattle under winter conditions and from epidemics and the elimination of the destructive slaughter of cattle on kolkhoz farms. In the districts of Stalinabad, Leninabad and Garm a shortage of over 150,000 cattle in 1948 was attributed mainly to indiscriminate cattle slaughter.

Conditions on kolkhoz farms and the level of prosperity of kolkhoz farmers had, during the year, improved. This could be judged from the fact that the number of farms with a million rouble turn-over had risen from 81 in 1940 to 123 in 1947 and to 214 in 1948. On many kolkhoz farms, however, both rich and poor, the Agricultural Artel Charter continued to be disregarded especially in backward high-mountain areas where the "democratic" provisions of the Charter were often violated and kolkhoz property misused or misappropriated. On many such farms kolkhoz members as a matter of fact paid more earnest attention to their own small patches of land than to common kolkhoz property. The number of cattle owned by kolkhoz farms in the Kulyab district was, for instance, much less than the number of cattle belonging privately to individual members of kolkhoz farms. This observation applied also to horses. Kolkhoz farms in some districts had not enough cattle or horses to plough their fields and completely depended on the hiring of draft-oxen and horses from private owners. In the Javan district 56 collective farms owned only 348 oxen and 19 kolkhoz farms had no draft-cattle at all while individual members of the same farms privately owned 1,258 oxen. The number of cattle owned by kolkhoz farms, it was alleged, was growing very slowly in view of the loss of hundreds of thousands

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of cattle through epidemics, severe winter conditions and the indiscriminate slaughter of cattle and sheep for what was known as "interval" kolkhoz needs. As a result private owners of draft cattle, though not participating directly in kolkhoz activities, were enriching themselves through charging exorbitant fees for the use of their privately owned oxen and horses. Conditions on kolkhoz farms were especially bad in high mountain districts. These farms were exempt from land and income taxes and in fact received financial assistance from the Government which was, however, not always effective. Financially most of the collective mountain farms were these last ten years permanently in the red. Recently, it seems, plans were perfected to remove peasants from most of these desert hill farms to the new cotton-growing irrigated areas or to use their manpower in republican industries. To further promote Tajik industries it was necessary, as calculated recently, to recruit and train an additional 25,000 workers, which could be most suitably achieved only by uprooting the population of high altitude regions. The future of kolkhoz agriculture in these high altitude districts was anyhow bleak. A publicity campaign was to be shortly launched to persuade the population of mountain kishlaks to leave their ancestral homes. The hillmen were to be told that by working on cotton plantations in the valleys or in city industries they would be of more use to their own country and to the Soviet Union as a whole. Through a patriotic willingness to carry out state plans and migrate they would not only improve their own lot but would enhance the economy and strength of a republic which was a formidable outpost for the advancement of communism across the borders of Central Asia. This migration was mostly to areas of long-staple cotton in the Vakhsh valley. In 1949 the valley had as a whole yielded 13,000 tons more cotton than in 1941 and its continued colonisation would appreciably increase cotton cultivation along the Vakhsh. It was alleged, however, that the Central Committee of the Party and the Tajik Council of Ministers had not treated this mass migration as a matter of paramount state importance. Colossal sums of money were being spent on moving colonists down to the valley but this money was not utilised in effectively. The colonists did not even always settle down in the areas of new cultivation allotted to them as prepared dwellings were in many districts totally absent or not readily available. Settlers were given little help by the personnel of machine-tractor stations and little instruction in the use of mechanical means of cultivation though settlers in the Vakhsh valley who were from high mountain areas had no experience in the cultivation of cotton. To induce them to leave their hill homes their present poverty was usually contrasted with the prosperity of such advanced kolkhoz communities as, for instance the "Frunze" kolkhoz whose revenue last year reached seven million roubles and brought each member an earned income for each day of work of 13 roubles in cash, eight kilograms of cereals, 500 grammes of dried fruit and 850 grammes of meat.

In spite of such alleged exemplary prosperity, few of the richer kolkhoz estates took adequate steps to improve their living and cultural conditions. There were kolkhoz farms with an annual income of over two million roubles. Their kishlaks, however, often did not have a single decent public building or club or chai-khanna premises. The cultural level of many kolkhoz farmers even on such "millionaire" farms remained low and there were many among them even today who were illiterate. Illiteracy was not infrequent even among kolkhoz chairman and a story was around Stalinabad the other day that at a recent agricultural conference at Stalinabad, a certain illiterate kolkhoz chairman addressing the conference to save face picked up a blank sheet of paper and made it appear as if he were consulting his written notes.

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For the first eleven months of 1948 Tajik INDUSTRY achieved their planned targets only to the extent of 77%. Production throughout the year at many of the factories was still far from rhythmic. There was insufficient technological discipline though it was realized that only its strict enforcement could ensure higher quality of production and a stricter adherence to production standards. The prime cost of a number of manufactured articles often exceeded expectations and was above calculations at the KIM Oil Fields, the Stalinabad Tobacco Factory and the Kansai Mining Kombinat.

Labour productivity remained at a low ebb and incentive methods of wage payments were either not properly applied or not fully operative. Piece work and premiums had not in fact become the levers that were intended to boost production due partly to the extremely rapid turnover of labour at industrial plants at which insufficient attention was paid to an improvement of labour and cultural conditions and to the construction of permanent workers' dwellings.

The ~~xx~~ annual target for capital investment in 1948 remained at the low figure of 70% due to delays in providing blue prints and building materials, the imperfect handling of labour gangs, the inadequate mechanisation of construction work and other similar causes. Leninabad reported for instance, that the construction of the Rodjabakargan irrigation project on which work had started fifteen years ago and on which over fifteen million roubles had been spent had not been completed and that not a drop of irrigation water had so far reached the fields. Among completed plants in the course of the last seven years were, however, a cement factory, the Stalinabad Textile Kombinat, the "~~Antark~~ Salaitro" Works, a soap factory, a plant for the production of tractor spare parts, a tobacco, a canning and tile factory at Ordjonikidzeabad. The Takob Fluor-Spar Kombinat had by now also come into operation.

Quality and diversity in merchandise was substantially lacking in regard to many articles including footwear and knitted fabrics. As a result Tajik mills had become this year over-stocked with goods which would be difficult to dispose of. The first duty of Tajik light industries was therefore to improve assortments and quality of popular brands of goods used by the common man. To achieve this, they had to be better and more regularly provided with raw materials as their ~~xxx~~ scarcity had led at times to uneven production and to serious declines in output followed by temporary production spurts. To complete the Five-Year Plan in four years mills and factories had to achieve this year their 1950 norms of production. The pruning of prime production costs was another important task. The Stalinabad Shoe and Boot factory had, for instance, instead of cutting prime costs by 4.6% ended the financial years with an increase of production costs by over ten per cent; and this factory was no exception.

Primary attention was to be paid to the development of heavy industries, to the exploration of new oil fields and the expansion of existing producing fields. The coal industry was to be expanded. The rapid development of the Bayat Coal Mines was a priority task and increased production at these mines was expected to revolutionise the economy of the high mountain areas of Matcha, Zakhmatabad, Vorkob and Pandjikent.

Complaints were raised of the low annual quality indexes in the work Tajik railways. Turnover of wagons at Stalinabad station took, for instance twentytwo hours instead of twelve. Cargoes were often damaged or otherwise interfered with while enroute, and no economy was evidently enforced in the consumption of fuel.

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Overall progress in transport since the Bolshevik October revolution had been considerable as a total of 8969 kms of roads and 635 kilometres of railways had been constructed. All district centres were now connected with Stalinabad by road or rail. It was admitted, however, that many road sections were last year in such an appalling condition that they were likely to retard and put a brake on the continued development of the productive forces of the republic.

Road transport by lorry and truck had generally greatly increased. Trucks of the Ministry of Motor Transport had extended their services to Khorog, Murghab and Ishkashim, and were used frequently crossing the 3,000 Anzob and Shahristan passes along the Stalinabad-Urskaya route. In 1948 motor lorries and trucks of this ministry carried 249,000 tons of cargo. Their "qualitative" indexes had by then improved and the usefulness of a car which in 1947 amounted to only sixteen thousand ton-kilometres had now risen to 36,400. However there were still delays in loading and unloading cargo and an absence of effective controls over adherence to time-schedules. No "prophylactic" repairs of cars were regularly made as a result of which breakdowns were frequent. The wear and tear of tyres was excessive but not unjustified as these last eight years most roads had not been properly repaired which was a major factor in delaying the rapid development of road transport. Among present road-tasks were the completion of a motor highway between Stalinabad and Khorog and of the Stalinabad-Urskaya highway and the repair of all roads of local and republican importance. It was considered also imperative to ensure more regular railway communication between Stalinabad and Leninabad.

Electrification of the republic had not progressed in 1948 to any considerable extent though it was fully realized that without electrification the proper development of the productive forces of the republic would be considerably handicapped. Greatest importance was attached to implementing the Great Vakhsh hydro-electric power project. Meanwhile electrification of rural localities was proceeding slowly. Of 47 kolkhoz stations only four were providing power for other needs than lighting. In the Garm district there was only one power station. Many of the existing had been poorly constructed. There was a general shortage of electricians and of electric supplies. Moreover projects for the construction of smaller stations often fell into the hands of irresponsible "projectors." The power resources of Tajikistan were only behind those of the far East and Eastern Siberia. However no scientific work was being carried out by the Tajik Branch of the Academy of Sciences to study energy resources. Progress was somewhat slow. Before the revolution no electric power stations existed in Tajikistan. The first station to be opened in 1926 was the station Dushanbe power plant. By 1937 work on the Varvob hydro-electric station was in full swing and there were now in the republic 174 industrial, communal and rural stations. Production of electric power was to increase in 1950 to 180 million kilowatt hours most of which was to be produced by Tajikistan in 240 kolkhoz rural stations.

TURKMENIA

THE DEAD VALLEY OF THE UZBOI. An expedition of the Institute of Geography of the Soviet Academy of Sciences recently completed the arduous task of exploring, under desert conditions, the dead valley of the Uzboi over almost its entire length of 700 kilometres. At one time it was erroneously considered that this ancient river-bed constituted the main course of the Amu Darya along which the waters of that mighty river flowed in ancient times to the Caspian instead of the Aral Sea and it was to disprove finally this theory that the present scientific expedition started from its city base of Kizyl Arvat on the slopes of Kopet Dag about 200 kms north

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west of Ashkhabad and painstakingly followed the winding course of the Uzboi valley which to this day forms in parts chains of salt water lakes of a lovely asur colour so deceptive in colour and enticing under desert conditions that approaching the banks of these lakes men, camels and horses eagerly rush to their water edge only to find water intensely saline.

The expedition was organised to find an answer to questions of interest both to science and to the future planning of Turkmenia's agriculture and industries. What was this deep dead valley? When and by which river had its course been eroded? Why and when did the river finally cease to flow along its original course? Of vital practical importance was the question as to whether water could be again made to flow along the ancient bed of the Uzboi causing its residue of salt lakes to disappear and their basins to be turned into sweet water reservoirs.

In the earliest available manuscripts references are found to a great river traversing the Karakum desert. Greek historians of the conquests of Alexander the Great also described the Amu Darya as flowing into the Caspian. These scanty references curiously enough found support in surviving folklore legends of a rich extinct agricultural civilisation along the former course of the Uzboi and of vineyards and groves of which at present there were no longer any trace.

The Russians first got to know about the Uzboi in 1814 when Peter the Great was told by the Turkomen Hodjy Nefez that the Amu Darya had originally delivered its waters into the Caspian but that later the people of Khiva had erected dams to divert the waters of this river to the Aral Sea so as to prevent Russians penetrating into Central Asia by way of the Caspian and up the Uzboi. Ever in search of suitable trade routes following which he could enlarge his domains Peter the Great wrongly concluded on hearing this story that the Amu Darya could be diverted into the Caspian if only the dams allegedly built by the Khivians were breached and the Amu Darya directed into her old channel. To establish trade relations with Central Asia soon after this he sent to the Khan of Khiva the ill-fated Bekovitch-Chernysky expedition which apart from other things was instructed to explore the course of the Amu Darya, to breach if possible the main dams on this river and by doing so to divert the waters of the Amu Darya to the Caspian establishing a direct water-route into the heart of Central Asia. This expedition was, however, a failure and most of its members finally perished in its execution. But had they even succeeded in penetrating Khiva the clever schemes of Peter could not have been achieved as geographic facts did not correspond to the fantastic descriptions of the Uzboi river and valley by Hodjy Nefez.

The next expedition to the Uzboi took place much later in 1879-1883 when engineer Gubovsky was instructed to make a detailed survey of the valley and to outline a project to fill the Uzboi with water. The old desire to find a direct water-way to the borders of Afghanistan evidently even persisted then as Gubovsky was instructed to explore the southern link of a grandiose water system from the Afghan border along the Amu Darya and via the Caspian to the Volga and finally over the Maryinsk canal system in North Russia to the Baltic. Other expeditions soon followed including one with the participation of Academician Obrutchev.

No unanimous opinion resulted, however, from all these explorations. Some explorers stubbornly persisted that the Uzboi (not to be confused with the Kelif Uzboi) linked in the past the Aral and Caspian

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seas, others that it was the surplus waters of the Aral Sea which found an outlet through the Uzboi, still others that the Uzboi was at one time a deep inland bay of the Caspian and then still others that it was but a channel eroded by rain water which collected after occasional extremely heavy precipitations. The predominant opinion remained, however, that the Uzboi was the bed of a prehistoric river through which part of the waters of the Amu Darya found an outlet to the Caspian. It was in fact Academician Obruchev who first established that along this channel was discharged only that part of the water of the Amu Darya which overflowed the Sary Kamish depression. Obruchev also made it clear that the rapids along the course of the Uzboi would have made shipping along this water-way at any time in its existence quite impossible.

At the time the Transcaspiian railway was being constructed a number of topographers and engineers visited the Uzboi valley but failed to come to any final conclusion as to its origin or its likely usefulness in the future for irrigation purposes or as a canal water-way. In Soviet times considerable exploration work was done in 1934 by the so-called Turkmenian Expedition which explored the valley in detail, took numerous photographs and made a thorough survey of the Uzboi from the Caspian shores to the borders of the Sary Kamish depression from where the Uzboi originated. This expedition came to the conclusion that no permanent channel ever connected the Amu Darya but that of a comparatively small river emerging from the Sary Kamish lake (now depression) which in its turn was fed in ancient days by the Amu Darya. Disagreeing with Obruchev members of this expedition came to the conclusion that there was nothing to show that the river still existed in historical times. The presence of ruins and other marks of buildings, of cemeteries and of irrigation works was in their opinion, no final proof of a river having existed here in historical times as the inhabitants of these settlements may have had other means for irrigating the valley than using the Uzboi.

Materials collected by these expeditions conclusively proved that Amu Darya waters had not always been fully discharged into the Ara Sea but that part of this mighty stream at one time turned west and filled to overflowing the Sary Kamish and Atrak Atrak depressions where it formed a colossal fresh water lake. From this lake emerged to the south the Uzboi on its 700 km course to the Caspian, similarly as in our days the Angara river flows from lake Baikal or the Neva from lake Ladoga. The life span of this river was comparatively short, much shorter than the life of other dried up rivers, though even during its short period of existence it managed to erode a deep river-bed which to this day is clearly visible and traceable.

The latest 1948 expedition explored the entire course of the Uzboi valley, all of its dry waterfall sites and salt water lakes and its conspicuous though now dry rapids. One of the ancient waterfalls, over which not a drop of water was now trickling, was ten metres high and at the bottom of its fall were still the blue waters of a salt-water lake. During 2½ months the expedition managed to explore the entire valley with its succeeding grey, white and yellow coloured stretches of desert and even chanced upon a lovely oasis with stately poplars and rushes three metres high and three fresh water lakes teeming with turtles, with shores alive with wild game and roaming herds of horses gone wild. These peculiar lakes had come into being through seepage of underground waters from the Kopet Dagh mountains which formed a powerful underground flow. The water remained constantly fresh as the lake surface was two metres above the level of the Uzboi and could not become contaminated with salt water. The expedition followed the course of the Uzboi to the west as far as the shores of the Caspian, that is, to the vicinity of the Nebit Dagh hills which were known to have been surrounded by the sea and open to sailing vessels as even as late as 1829. Only the rich salt deposits near Nevit Dagh remind the visitor to-day of the considerable recession of the Caspian in the vicinity of the Nebit Dagh hills.

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Why had the Uzboi disappeared? The answer to this question is provided by the theory that at one time the waters of the Amu Darya were divided into two streams--some flowing north the Aral depression while the other turned south-west towards the Sary Kamish depression where it formed a lake from which the Uzboi took its waters. With a change of climate conditions a great volume of water began however to flow north. With the growth of a settled population the waters of the Amu Darya also began to be used to a greater extent for irrigation purposes which considerably curtailed their inflow into Sary Kalish Lake. As a result this, at one time overflowing lake, got filled up to its brim only seasonally when water levels were the highest in the Amu Darya itself. There was no longer sufficient water for discharge into the Uzboi and this outlet for the overflow of Sary Kamish Lake began in the course of time to dry up. It is thought that the life of the Uzboi as a flowing river ended much earlier than that of the Sary Kamish Lake as around this lake traces of irrigation works, of cities and fortresses were still found while along the Uzboi there were no traces of human habitation. Nothing has been so far found in the valley except remnants of flint implements and there was nothing to support the existence of human activities here at a later age. The Uzboi river is now commonly described as a "prehistoric" river as all fantastic claims of previous flourishing life along its valley have been discounted. Why this ancient river bed was not obliterated or buried under sand is explained by the emanation of heat waves from its deep bed which could be compared to an oven from which a continuous stream of hot air prevented sand and dust to be deposited on its surface.

It remained for the expedition to answer the question as to whether the Uzboi could be restored to its ancient prehistoric function of a carrier of water to the Caspian from the Amu Darya via the Sary Kamish depression. The answer to this is the affirmative. To divert the waters of the Amu Darya to the Sary Kamish depression would not, however, be a practical solution as the filling up of a depression of 8,500 sq. kilometres and 100 metres deep would have made excessive demands even on this mighty river. It was considered therefore a more common-sense way to build a canal circumventing the Sary Kamish depression and bringing the waters of the Amu Darya direct to the Uzboi. This decision would of course entail considerably more ~~extensive excavation work~~ excavation work but less expenditure and wastage of the precious waters of the Amu Darya. Soviet scientists were now definitely of the opinion that the old plans of visionaries to make the Uzboi navigable and create a direct route from the borders of Afghanistan to the Baltic were to be finally given up. The ancient bed of the Uzboi was, however, to be further explored with a view to utilizing it as a part of a complex irrigation system to meet the industrial need of south-west Turkmenia and to enable Western Turkmenistan to extend its cotton belt and acreage under subtropical plants.

But this was no immediate job as it had been decided to start developing plans for the reclaiming of the Uzboi as an irrigation venture only on completion of the Great Karakum canal which was a priority job of lasting benefit to the economy of Southern Turkmenia. Converting the Uzboi into an irrigation canal was by some scientists considered even dangerous in that sense that though of benefit to Turkmenia it would, if implemented, lower the level of the Aral Sea and adversely affect its fisheries which were of prime importance to the economy of Soviet Central Asia as a whole.

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KIRGHIZIA

PROGRESS IN KIRGHIZIA. Discussions held at the Fifth Conference of the Communist Party of Kirghizia in Frunze this February are of some interest to us as they disclose not only narrow party matters but provide ample material for a better understanding of prevailing conditions in Kirghizian industries and agriculture as well as in the fields of education and general culture.

Between the Fourth and Fifth Conferences there had been an interval of 9 years, a long period not only in the life of a Party but of Kirghizia itself. Many changes were in consequence to be recorded. The report of the Mandate Commission of the Conference dwelt, for instance, in detail on the numerical growth of the party and provided interesting data on the status of the delegates and on the principles that governed their election. At the time of the Fourth Conference each voting delegate represented, it seems, only 25 party members. Owing to the steady growth of the party this proportion had now been changed and at the 1949 Conference each delegate represented 110 members while each non-voting delegate represented 200 party candidates against 95 nine years ago. The reason for these adjustments was the increase of party membership since 1940 by 2.9 times. The present session was attended by 347 voting delegates representing 31,000 members and 51 non-voting delegates who represented 5,900 party candidates. A total of 132 delegates came from the Frunze and 68 from the Osh regions which were regions of denser population and of a greater infiltration of communist ideas. The movement of candidates towards full membership was, however, extremely slow. In the Osh region although of a total of 1,871 party candidates 1,831, or 98.6% had exceed their probation period as candidates they could not be considered qualified for promotion to full membership on account of their poor educational and political attainments. Data on the social status of the delegates was extremely revealing. Of 398 party members and candidates attending the conference, 166 were professional party workers and 100 employees of Soviet or local administration offices. Thus the majority of delegates came from the ranks of the Soviet aristocracy which ruled Kirghizia. Only 19 delegates were rank and file factory or mill workers whose social status was described as that of labourers. Among the "democratic" ranks were 37 kolkhoz members mostly of the Stakhanovite type (33) who were in a foreign way foreign to kolkhoz life. Education qualifications showed a very high percentage of delegates with university and middle school diplomas. Other revealing statistics were on the duration of party membership. Only two delegates had been party members since 1917, thirteen had joined between the years 1918-1920, thirteen between 1920-1925, while 108 or 17.2% had become party members since 1917, thirteen had joined between the years 1918-1920, thirteen between 1920-1925, while 108 or 17.2% had become party members between 1933-1940, 86 in 1941-43 and 52 between 1944-46. Eight of the delegates had joined as late as 1947-49. These figures seem clearly to indicate that the old guard had largely disappeared from active party life and that the conduct of party affairs in Kirghizia was now in the hands of members with a comparatively shorter party record. But even then none of them were youngsters as only four of the delegates were under 25, thirty-three were between the ages of 26 and 33, while those between 31-40 were 163. Those between 41-51, number 173, comprised the majority. Kirghizians proper had no overwhelming majority at the Conference as their delegates comprised only 197 or 49.6%. Russians were represented by 121 delegates or 30.5%, Ukrainians by 35 or 8.9%. Other Soviet Central Asians by 34 delegates or 8% and all other union nationalities, except the above, by 19 or 5%. For purposes of voting the Ukrainians could be, of course, blocked together with the Russians. The Mandate Commission, however, optimistically reported that the composition of the Conference was a marked improvement on the previous one as the number of delegates of Kirghiz origin had increased by 61 or 13%. Among the delegates were 56 women, including 43 Kirghizians.

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The Fifth Conference recorded with satisfaction that industrial activities in the republic had considerably increased, that improvements had been attained in agriculture and that the sowing area in the republic had grown. There had been an overall increase in the number of cattle, horses, sheep and goats. Kolkhoz estates had considerably prospered and earnings of their members had increased. Improvements were also recorded in the educational and cultural fields of the republic.

The most far-reaching and disturbing shortcomings of the present day were listed at the Conference as follows: the oil, coal and the so-called local industries were somewhat behind in the execution of the Five Year Plan. Capital construction plans under the current "pyatiletkha" also were not fully implemented. Annual production targets had not been reached at the Frunze Machinery Works and at the coal mines of Tash Kmyr, Sulyukta and in the oil fields of Kumbel and Baily Sa. Apart from a shortage in output, quality in production had remained low and variety and assortments in mill and factory output were mostly deficient. There seemed to be no serious endeavour to raise the quality of production or to lower prime cost. In agriculture progress had been retarded mostly through imperfect guidance of the republican ministries. Numerous kolkhoz estates fell short in their deliveries of agricultural produce but no decisive steps had been taken by the respective ministries to avoid repeated breaches of the Agricultural Artel Charter which alone accounted for a variety of shortcomings. Deficiencies in the delivery to the State of cotton, sugar-beet and opium and of the other technical cultures continue to this very day. Not much had been done by the republican ministries either to improve to any appreciable degree the lot of mine, factory, mill and sovkhoz workers or to enforce measures aimed at securing the welfare of urban and rural dwellers.

Such were some of the common grievances voiced in selfcriticism by the communist delegates to the Fifth Kirghiz Conference. To make these general complaints sound more convincing and real and to define the limits of Bolshevik achievements in Kirghizia further details are, however, necessary. Coal mining was no doubt one of the most important industries in Kirghizia. This industry was developing and production at the mines of the Kirghizugol Trust had actually increased in 1948 by 13.6%. There had also been improvements at the mines in the maintenance of capital repairs and in this respect 1948 targets were exceeded by 6.8%. But even then the overall plan for coal deliveries by the Kirghizugol Trust since the beginning of the current "pyatiletkha" had been implemented only to the extent of 97.7%. Of four of the principal coal mines, Tash Kmyr and Sulyukta lagged behind in their coal deliveries owing mainly to an incomplete and faulty utilization of pit machinery and the incessant turnabout of miners. Few decisive competitive drives had been held at these two mines. Their management was also accused of preferentially working veins of coal easy to be brought to the surface.

The coal industry had not reached its pre-war level of production. At Kizyl Kiya 30% of the miners were not fulfilling their minimum production norms. At Sulyukta the pre-war level had not been reached and the annual production plan was carried out only to the extent of 84% due to poor organization of labour, the incomplete utilization of mechanical equipment and low labour productivity. Conditions at Kizyl Kiya were better though even here four of the pits including Pit No. 6 were badly behind in their output. One of the reasons for these setbacks at Kizyl Kiya was attributed to the insufficient care which the management displayed for the welfare of the miners. Kizyl Kiya stores were constantly short of supplies and workmen were constantly reluctant to stay on in a place where luxuries apart not even in a minimum of supplies could be obtained. Similar complaints were over and over again protested at the Conference and were prominently echoed by the local press.

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A leading article in "Soviet Kirghizia" reiterated, for instance, that though 20% more coal had been produced in Kirghizia last year over 1947, republican production plans had not been achieved since the general introduction of technical improvements had been slow while the use of mechanical equipment in a number of pits had been altogether disregarded. According to this paper over 40% of the miners were not achieving their norms of production. The introduction of new capital construction had also been slow and Tash Kumyr was far behind approved time-tables owing mostly to a 50% shortage of labour at construction sites. More labourers had in fact deserted construction jobs during the last ten months than had been brought to the sites of new construction as living conditions were actually so bad at these sites that construction gangs were reluctant to stay on. Six hundred labourers alone had returned from Tash Kumyr as they were displeased with existing living conditions and the lack of comforts or cultural amenities.

It was considered that by improving mining techniques the output in Kirghizia could be easily doubled as cutting machines, electric drills and loading machinery both at Tash Kumyr and Bulukta had not been properly or adequately used. So much for "achievements" in the coal industry.

The largest industrial centre of Kirghizia was Frunse. The industries centred in the capital of the republic were, however, not maintaining their column of production or improving the variety of their assortments. Of sixty industrial plants at Frunse, nineteen had failed to reach their annual targets. New capital construction was lagging behind. The erection of certain badly needed mills had been unnecessarily delayed and, in consequence, cotton yarn for Frunse Textile mills had still to be brought all the way from Kineshma on the upper Volga. This, however, was not an isolated cause of incompetence as timber was also brought all the way from Siberia though the new railway line to Rybachye on the shores of Issyk Kul Lake had been duly completed and opened up new possibilities for the exploitation of the timer "massives" of the Issyk Kul region in preference to the use of distant Siberian timber.

The most important industrial plant in Frunse, the Frunse Agricultural Machinery Works, was sadly lagging behind in the matter of "assorted" production. Production at this plant remained costly mostly in view of the high percentage of rejects in the foundry. A large quantity of new valuable equipment was at the same time lying idle at the plant. There was a similar case of a limited use of delicate and costly plant and machinery at the Oak Repair Workshops.

Proud voices were raised at the Conference asserting that since the previous Conference thirty new industrial plants had been completed. But their volume of production as admitted remained at a low level. To achieve quality in production was also seldom aimed at. The number of Stakhanovite workers had remained small. Most of the new plants were receiving government grants and were anyhow working at a loss and could not hope to cover for some time their overhead expense.

The Central Committee of the Communist Party and the Council of Kirghiz Ministers, it was alleged, were not paying adequate attention to implement new capital construction plans which could alone assure rapid and uninterrupted industrial expansion. In respect of capital investments the Five Year Plan had been fulfilled only to 39.5%. Construction of new living quarters under its provisions had also been retarded. There was no concentration of effort among building trusts which had led to a diffusion of technical resources and of available labour. The Five Year Plan postulated for Kirghizia a total capital investment to the tune of 1300 millions of roubles. By the end of its third year, however, only 464 million roubles had been utilized or a mere 36.6% of the planned outlay while of 215,000 sq. metres of living quarters only 30% had been so far completed.

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The present tasks in industries were meant to raise the "cultural" level of production, to improve quality indexes and to develop a number of new industries, including the oil, building materials and the so-called local industries and to increase output at Tashkent, Gulistan, Kumbel, Maily Su and at the Frunze Machinery Works which were all behind in implementing the current Five Year Plan. While the production of oil was to be raised eight-fold mainly through developing the Maily Su field which was to start operating early in 1949, the production of coal was to be increased, for the existing capacities at the coal mines had been utilized only to the extent of 55% in 1948.

It was thoroughly understood at the Conference that the strengthening of industries and the general development of Kirghizia depended largely on the extension of her professional and labour cadres and especially of her national cadres. But all was not well, it seems, in this respect. Women, for instance, were not fully encouraged to do the work of men while the number of women working in party or soviet offices had actually decreased. Training of national cadres had not been properly undertaken at the Kirghizian schools. In 1940 only 46 Kirghiz nationals had graduated from republican middle schools. By 1945 their number had reached one hundred and though in 1947 it had jumped to 860 and in 1948 to 1165 the present number of matriculates was not sufficient to man the colleges and higher scientific institutes of the Republic or to meet the growing needs of and educated persons in Kirghizia. Among industrial labourers only 13% were Kirghizians while among specialists and technicians their percentage sank to 1.9. Training of party cadres both in numbers and quality was also lagging behind and the "history and theory" of the Party were but negligently studied. Due to this imperfect political training there was a deplorable absence of proper contacts between members of the central administration and rank and file workers in the interior of the republic as party officials not always properly understood their duties towards the people.

Technical training could at present be acquired at 8 industrial and 14 "Factory and Workshop" schools from which over 25,400 trainees including 9,000 Kirghizians had passed since 1945. This number, of young workers would have been, of course, ample to cover the entire needs of Kirghizia in qualified labour. It so happened, however, that most of these qualified youths were not absorbed on graduation by local industries but scattered to the winds. Also in 1948 about one-third of the trainees had given up their studies in the course of the year and had abstained from coming regularly to the training centres. Highly qualified jobs were therefore, as in Czarist days, in the hands of the Russians. Over half of the population of Kirghizia were Kirghizians but it seems that only 8% of Kirghizians were employed in the industries of the republic. And no wonder. The Mining Technicum at Kizyl Kiya in the course of 18 years had not passed out a single Kirghiz while the Frunze Industrial Technicum had qualified in 15 years only ten Kirghiz nationals.

Electrification of rural districts was proceeding at a leisurely pace. Work on 24 electric stations with a total capacity of 4,450 kilowatt was actually started only last year. Though 19 of these new stations with a total capacity of 1,500 kilowatt were to have been completed in 1948 with 18 kolkhoz estates supplied with electricity, only 11 had been so far completed (660 kilowatt) and only 26 kolkhoz estates provided with electricity. Meanwhile the installed capacity of a number of existing hydro-power plants could not be fully utilized since in certain cases their water supply was no longer adequate. Thus the waters of the Great Chu Canal could no longer fully service its hydro-electric stations. The Chu Canal it seems, had not been properly looked after, the "collectors" at its source had neither been expanded nor properly maintained. All this had resulted in a decreased flow of water making the complete utilization of installed capacities of hydro-electric plants along the Great Chu canal for the time being impossible.

Since the Fourth Conference (1940) Voroshilov Hydroelectric stations No. 1 and 2 and the Przhvalsk station along with a few less important plants had been completed. But the Dzhergelen station, the construction of which

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was of some importance to the economy of the Tsyk Khl regions, was still in process of construction. The trusts responsible for the construction of new stations, it was alleged, were both slow and unwieldy in implementing new capital construction works. In the Alabai district a station planned to serve five kolkhoz estates had been under construction for two years, while the Aravan power house was incomplete even after ten years of ~~the~~ misplaced effort.

The Plan for 1949-50 demanded the supplying of electric current to 294 kolkhoz estates. The Fifth Conference strongly supported the fulfillment of this decision and the completion of the current Five-Year Plan, that is, the construction of power stations with a total capacity of 38,000 kilowatts. To achieve this, work on the Chumysh dam and the enlarging of the Great Chu Canal had to be most energetically pursued. The Voroshilov Complex of Power Stations was also to be developed up to its planned capacity.

Complaints were voiced at the Conference in respect of many glaring shortcomings in the working of kolkhoz economies. Agricultural techniques on kolkhoz farms, it was alleged, continued to be low. Maintenance levels at Machine-Tractor Stations were likewise low and there were many instances of agricultural combines breaking down in the fields as their repairs had not been properly attended to. The procurement of cotton in 1948 amounted to only 89.1%, of sugar beet to 83.7% and of tobacco to 97%, these shortages, being mostly due to the non-application of forward agricultural techniques. Meanwhile steps taken for the final liquidation of branches of the Agricultural Artel Charter were either miscarried or were not sufficient. It was admitted that proper inspection and control of kolkhoz estates and of their budgets were not properly carried out as a result of which many foul deeds of mismanagement and misappropriation never came to light and could not be removed. Punishments, inflicted for deviations from sound socialist economy practices were mild and non-effective. Refractory chairmen of kolkhoz farms were in many instances merely removed to other estates in their previous high capacity or sent to party schools to be "reformed". In the Talas region a flow of orders and directives poured from the regional committee in an endless stream. But not much was ever accomplished and advanced plans for the planting of cotton, of sugar-beet, tobacco, opium and of other technical cultures continued to be grossly violated. Selection of seeds for sowing - as in many instances imperfect and little had been done to introduce more suitable types of cotton or to raise sugar-beet of rich yields. From debates at the Conference it was apparent that agricultural techniques in Kirghizia had, generally speaking, remained at a low level. The explanation for this was probably in the fact that of 179 agricultural experts, "agro technicians" and vets only 88 had college diplomas while of 68 directors of Machine-Tractor Stations there were only eight with a higher education. Long term plans were in consequence not easy to be carried out. The Chu valley had been originally planned as valley reserved for the cultivation of sugar and cereals. But it had rapidly developed into an area on which many other cultures, including groundnuts, hemp and kenaf were widely planted. Limiting the variety of planted crops was thus not easy to enforce. New agricultural plans were at the same time seldom carried out with that minimum of bolshevik "passion" which ensured ultimate success instead of dismal failure. Kolkhoz farmers had not everywhere acquired a true kolkhoz psychology and in the Alai valley the bulk of the cattle and the horses was still owned by individual members of the artel and not by the kolkhoz as a community.

There had, of course, been progress in education and cultural matters. Among persons engaged in the republic in administrative, technical and educational activities 7,500 including 3,104 women, had a college education. Nine hundred and sixty were engineers, 1096 agronomists, 1323 doctors and 2939 teachers. There were also over 18,000 technicians and other specialists with middle school

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certificates, including 8,000 women of whom 4,000 were Kirghiz women. But even then universal education could not be fully enforced, while large number of students continued to "fall out" in the course of their studies. The percentage of students failing in examinations each year was as high as twenty. School programmes in the higher grades were not always fully carried out. Also guidance to teachers in methodological matters was inadequate. There was a shortage of books and other aids to education. Many questions connected with improving the teaching of Russian had not up till now been solved and in many primary schools there were to this day either no teachers of Russian or teachers who had no proper qualifications. Kirghiz Institutes for Higher Education had obviously not yet become a base for the training of qualified cadres from among the native population. The Agricultural Institute, for instance, had since its opening passed out only 37 Kirghiz or 11% of its successful graduates. The Medical Institute in ten years had passed out a total of 1,328 medical practitioners but of this sizeable number only 22 were Kirghiz nationals, while the Pedagogical Institute had graduated in ten years 150 Kirghiz or a mere 16.5% of its total of graduates. In 1948 only 108 Kirghiz and 42 representatives of other peoples of Central Asia were in training at the Medical Institute. The chief reason for this poor attendance was, it was alleged, that Kirghiz students could not find suitable living accommodation in Frunze and that many of them were backward in their studies especially in such subjects as Russian, physics, chemistry and literature.

The Kirghiz Branch of the Academy of Sciences was criticised at the Conference for the estrangement of its scientific work from the more immediate economic needs of the republic and from problems vitally affecting its rapid political and cultural advancement. It was thought that one of the reasons for this awkwardness was that political party instruction classes at the Kirghiz Academy Branch were poorly organized and that even party communists among its associates did not regularly attend lectures on party problems or show much enthusiasm in following courses in higher communist training. The Branch had become divorced from the masses. As a result, the research work carried out by its associates had become abstract and scholastic. Few subjects were studied having connection with the vital needs of the republic such as the improvement of harvest yields. The Branch had failed to establish contacts with Kolkhoz and Sovkhoz workers. The general political knowledge and background of some of its associates was low. Little "bolshhevik" criticism had been indulged in even though some of the associates had some knowledge of dialectical materialism. The immediate tasks awaiting its workers were to explore the productive resources of the Issyk Kul and Tien Shan regions which had only recently been linked up by the Kant-Rybachye railway with the fertile Chu valley with a view to eventually intensifying its agricultural output. Sections of the Branch were bluntly told to work on more pragmatic problems. The language section was to submit, for instance, a thesis showing the influence of the Russian language on the development of the Kirghiz language since the October Revolution. Even the geological section in which, by the way, there was not a single Kirghiz was urged to make better use of its facilities for exploration.

The number of students completing annually their respective courses was even now much less than what was required. Especially few and far between them were girl graduates. It often happened that on graduation students were reluctant or even refused to proceed to the distant localities to which they had been assigned which was a clear indication that their ideological and political education had been neglected and had not confirmed them in their desire to serve their people and the State. It was also admitted that the enrolment of Kirghiz students had stayed year after year below requirements, especially in regard to women while the number of those who had deserted their courses of study continued to be much higher than it had been anticipated.

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Considerable shortcomings existed, it appeared, in the running of the regional press and in the encouragement of literary efforts. Regional committees were allegedly offering insufficient guidance to the local press. As a result the ideological and cultural level of most of the local papers remained at a low level. Publicity given in the press to the advanced agricultural methods had been insufficient. Little was done to popularize the achievements of the Michurin-Lysenko school of biologists. At the same time articles on questions of general interest were few and far between while harmful notions on the development of Kirghiz literature and misconstruction of the general course of Kirghiz history come often inadvertently to the surface. In editions of folklore songs "hai-manap" ideas were clearly discernible. Then there were writers who simply adored criticism and there were poets who reconstructed folklore themes in a mechanical way and who in recreating scenes of days gone by placed undue emphasis on outdated customs and traditions. In literature and in historical research there existed a marked predilection towards an over emphasis on national aspirations and a disregard in literature of the more progressive traditions of Russian classics. The main fault of Kirghizian writers was in the opinion of their party critics in their idealization of feudal-patriarchal relations, in their denial of an existence of a class struggle in pre-revolutionary Kirghizia and in the representation of certain feudal princes and khans of the past as national heroes. Colonization was regarded by some of them as an "absolute" evil and a source of great unnecessary sufferings which the Kirghiz people could not have had to endure had the Russians stayed out. Kirghiz nationalists had, for instance, alleged that the Russian colonization had led to the appearance of pessimistic trends (sazaman) in Kirghiz popular literature though these mournful motifs had actually sprung up following the decay of the old feudal system and had little to do with Russian colonization. In this connection it has been time and again officially repeated by numerous pro-Russian publicists that from the objective point of view the incorporation of Kirghizia had been a progressive event as it had led to durable friendly relations between the Russian and the Kirghiz people. Another shortcoming was that Kirghiz writers had developed harmful tendencies in misconstruing Soviet conditions and in minimizing Soviet achievements. It seems as if they could not fully understand the rich "contents" of the life enjoyed by millions in the Soviet Union while some of them had become prejudiced as they still suffered from the pan-turkic aberrations which had survived among the literati.

MISCELLANEOUS

An unnamed peak in the Terekty Alatau has been given the name of Palmiro Togliatti.

The following average harvest sugar-beet statistics have been reported of Kirghiz kolkhozes and sovkhos farms: an average of 609.7 centners per hectare on 61 hectares, 565 centners on 30 hectares, 544.8 on 25 hectares, 508. on 50, 4737 on 85 and 421 centners on 45 hectares.

A committee has been appointed to work out a complex plan for the "remaking of nature. As 70% of all agriculture activities was carried out in Kirghizia on irrigated lands the main task to be accomplished was in the improvement and extension of irrigation means. It has been calculated that the percentage of water lost on its way from source to field was actually 60%. It was consequently a primary task to reconstruct and improve the existing distribution system so as to avoid this excessive unproductive wastage. Another important task was to throw up forest belts along the Chu Valley, ~~the~~ starting from the Basmorge up the Kazakhstan border to protect the valley against the dry parching winds ("suhovey"). Forest belts were to be put up likewise along the At-Bashi and Great Chu Canals and the western

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borders of the Frunze region. Planting roads were to be planted with trees along their borders in the course of the next five to ten years. Several forest "massives", were also to be developed in certain parts of the republic. The total area for afforestation was estimated at from sixty to eighty thousand hectares and special nurseries were soon to be opened to provide sapplings for the considerable afforestation schemes now afoot. In October this year a "forest and garden" week ~~work~~ would be suitably celebrated in the republic. In 1948 these festivities were, however, not a complete success as of 215 hectares of gardens only 125 were duly planted while that of 266 vineyards only sixty were planted. Strenuous efforts were to be made this season to overcome the formal bureaucratic barrier which emasculated this movement in the past.

Air mail deliveries between Osh and Frunze were taking nowadays five days and between Dzhalyal Abad and Frunze six days though to justify their description as air mail deliveries the time required for their carriage should not have exceeded a few hours.

A novel kind of "sanctuary" for the preservation of strata of the Jurassic division has been established in the Kara-Tau mountains between the Maly and Bolshoi Tordai. Embedded petrified fossils were found here in abundance near the villages of Aulie and Karabastan where they made up a veritable palaeo-botanical museum with specimens including the remain of huge dinosaurs. The locality has been now declared a reservation and the Kazakh Academy of Sciences has issued a special guide-book for the benefit of tourists and students visiting this natural museum of science.

"The bolshevist party would never become reconciled to manifestations of religious prejudices. Our leaders, Lenin and Stalin, had always insisted on the necessity of fighting religion. But to strengthen our fight against religion as the present moment is of greater importance than even before as the party had now undertaken the task of eradicating all capitalist survivals in the minds of men and of transforming all workers into active and purposeful builders of communism. A liberal attitude to reactionary religious ideologies couldn't therefore be tolerated at this stage ~~which~~ as any softening of the struggle against religious prejudices would be harmful to the task of achieving communism."

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Changes in Soviet Central Asia's economic and social order and the growth of urban population following the continued progress of industrialization have been considerable ever since the bolsheviks came to power while their relative tempo was notably accelerated on the termination of the second world war. A regional conference of architects in November, 1948, stressed this very definitely when it referred to the rapid growth of Tajik regional centres and rural settlements, to the widespread construction of private cottages and the overall extension of urban amenities throughout Central Asia.

Budgets of urban communities had naturally grown in line, the budget of Alma Ata, capital of Kazakhstan, increasing for instance, from 10 million roubles in 1947 to 117 in 1948 while the municipal budget of Tashkent, capital of Uzbekistan, had grown over that year from 241,000,000 to 349,515,000 roubles.

A few comparative figures would suffice to show the spectacular growth of municipal utilities and amenities in Soviet Central Asia. The city of Vyernyi, now Alma Ata, had in the past only eight schools with 1272 pupils and two hospitals with 28 beds whereas Alma Ata had at present 100 schools attended by fifty thousand students and 23 hospitals. Vyernyi, when first established in 1854, was meant to serve as a military outpost for the enforcement of the colonial policies of the old Russian Empire and can even now be regarded as an outpost for the neo-imperialism of Soviet Russia.

Alma Ata became the capital of Kazakhstan in 1929 and its development got a tremendous impetus from the construction of the Turksib railway. Its importance as an industrial centre during the first 63 years of its existence was, however, negligible. Even as late as 1913 in the city had only a few brick factories, two small distilleries and flour mills - all of these plants employing 572 workmen. Its present industries had, in comparison, increased enormously as during the last decade over five hundred million roubles were invested on its industries which at present produce 40% of the output of the food and light industries and 18% of the so-called local and co-operative industries of Kazakhstan.

The growth of the city of Hodjent, now Leninabad, to give another example, has also been spectacular. Soviet writers have reason to regard Leninabad as one of the oldest cities in Asia. According to legend this city was first founded as a Chinese settlement. Other sources indicate that it owes its existence to Alexander the Great who built Hodjent in 17 days on the spot where his legions are supposed to have crossed to the right bank of the river. In 711 Hodjent was captured by the Arabs and in 1220 by Chengiz Khan. Hodjent was first captured by Russian troops in 1866. Progress for more than over half a century since then was however slow and by 1917 Hodjent had only 70 houses built in a European style. There were no barracks for the garrison and the old citadel was still used for the billeting of Russian troops. Industries in that year were represented by a few cotton ginneries employing 160 workmen, a tannery and two brick kilns. In 1917 Hodjent had one parish school and a mixed Russian native school from 1891 to 1910; only nineteen students

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had graduated. The city budget in 1917 amount to 84,255 roubles. Of this amount 4,230 per annum were spent on education, 200 on the town library and 880 to cart away night-soil. The first cinema was opened in Modjent in 1919, a central hospital in 1926 and a municipal power station and silk weaving factory in 1926. In 1932 cultivation of long staple cotton was first brought to the area and Leninabad (Modjent) soon became the centre of an important cotton growing district and has since rapidly developed. Leninabad had at present a silk "Kombinat" for the processing and manufacture of silk, a fruit and vegetable canning plant, shoe factories, distilleries, etc. Its 14 schools catered for 7,270 pupils. It also had an agricultural, technical and a pedagogical institute. Among its amenities should be mentioned a fine park on the banks of the Syr Darya.

But not only were old cities expanding. Our list of mushroom growth cities in new industrial areas could be made very long and impressive. In Tajikistan the map showed the new mining settlements of Shurab, Kamsai and Tekeli. In Kazakhstan among more recent additions were saran (near Karaganda), Balkhash, Temir, Tau and Ablakotka. The map of Uzbekistan also showed many young cities including well-known Chirchik, a large industrial centre of the chemical and machine-building industries. On the banks of the Angren was rapidly growing the new coal city of Angren, while Begovat had already become the centre of Uzbek metallurgy. Labour settlements had likewise sprung up in the oil-bearing districts among which better known were Pavlantsk, South Alamyshk and Lyngar.

Chirchik was indeed growing at a remarkable pace. By 1947 the city had over ten thousand sq. metres of metalled roads and 3000 sq. metres of asphalt pavements. 25 bridges had been constructed within the limits of the city and the use of electric street lighting had considerably expanded. Municipal progress in Chirchik, it was alleged, would have been even more spectacular had the central republican authorities paid more attention to the implementing of decisions for its rapid growth and had provided machinery for the mechanization of road work and the building of houses. Men in charge of construction jobs, it seems, were also too often shifted around which caused unnecessary delays and temporary breakdowns in capital construction. Chirchik's summer cinema, for instance, had not been completed in time for the opening of the season. The construction of public baths and hairdressing saloons, had also been badly delayed for the same reason. The main bottleneck was evidently labour. Orders for labour gangs were hardly ever fully executed and only recently instead of 300 labourers mere 40 turned up. The supply of building materials, especially of timber was also not only totally inadequate but the timber was often of such poor quality as to be of no use for constructional purposes.

Considerable achievements in urban development and town management throughout the Soviet Central Asia could not be denied though many setbacks were evidently still being encountered. Even such small cities as Maryn and Talas had been provided with electric lighting. Money, it seems, was no obstacle to city development. In Frunze municipal finances were, for instance, quite adequate. Other conditions in this city were also favourable, especially for the extension of its roads. The city had all the necessary building materials in the immediate neighbourhood and adequate transport for its procurement. Due to inactivity and inertia little, however, was done to utilize these unique facilities. The same was true of the town council of Dzhalyal Abad which had all facilities for conducting road construction but was not displaying any signs of a progressive enterprising spirit. This reproach

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could be made as well in regard to the town council of Stalinabad. Money was available here for the construction of a town market but progress was slow.

Further there were scattered references in the regional press to deteriorating sanitary conditions, in Tashkent, Bukhara and Andijan and of a marked setback in municipal progress in these cities. Some of this city's wards, it was alleged, had obviously been mismanaged in matters of sanitation as watermain and arys had been allowed to become clogged and dirty. Plans for house construction in Tashkent had not all been carried out according to schedule. Many Tashkent roads were badly cut up and allowed to remain in a filthy condition. Kerkhi, Kanya Urgench and other cities were in this respect also not much better off.

The share of Central Asian cities in the industries of the five Central Asian republics was considerable. Recent Soviet statistics show a fair increase in the gross output of industrial production in 1948 which registered the following changes as compared with 1947 (1948 in % of 1947): Uzbek SSR - 113, Kazakh SSR - 110, Kirghiz SSR - 115, Tajik SSR - 120. But in Turkmenia there was a decline to 95. Industrial output had increased in the Central Asian republics with the exception of Turkmenia where the leading industrial centre of Ashkhabad had suffered a severe earthquake in the autumn of 1948 which effectively crippled the industrial output in Ashkhabad for the last quarter of the year. Though only about three months in the year were affected the gross output of Turkmenia had gone down as a result to 95%. Industries in urban localities had evidently become also highly centralised. City populations had also grown affecting the entire development of municipal affairs. The biggest industrial centre in Central Asia was, of course, Tashkent, a city which had textile mills producing a hundred million metres of ~~cotton~~ cotton fabrics annually and a huge plant turning out improved plows, cultivators, harrows and seed drills. These increased industrial activities had naturally transformed the entire life of Uzbekistan's capital.

To improve the welfare of cities and of their population was considered a "political" task of great importance to the progressive development of the Soviet Union and of its component republics. It was alleged however, that efforts in this direction were open to criticism as much had to be done all over Central Asia to improve living and housing conditions and the rapid extension of public utilities. Streets in Akmolinsk for instance were dirty and at night faintly lit and this city's parks and gardens were gradually dying for want of proper care. There were streets even in Alma Ata from which cars caught in rainy weather could never hope to escape under their own power. In Semipalatinsk of 1934 houses 810 were in a dilapidated condition. Repairs were, however, neglected not so much because of a shortage of manpower or of building material but because of a complete absence among Semipalatinsk town council members of a "bolshhevik" initiative. It was maintained in many press articles that current plans for the reconstruction of cities and for the reconstruction of cities and for the fulfillment of the Five-Year Municipal plan in four years had not been held up for want of financing. In Kirghizia nine million roubles had been earmarked for the construction of houses, roads and watermain. In Kazakhstan 54 million roubles were actually spent in 1947 and still the welfare of Kazakh cities had not improved to any marked degree. In Uzbekistan two milliards had been assigned for schools, hospitals, clubs and libraries which for many obscure reasons could not be fully utilised. Similarly large sums of money for capital construction had been earmarked in the other republics of Central Asia.

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Among the reasons which had led to only a partial implementation of existing plans was the bureaucratic attitude of responsible authorities (Kirghizia), the lack of overall guidance and the non-enforcement of existing regulations which had led in Stalinabad to temporary buildings of the "yurta" type being tolerated within city limits. There was, it seems, a marked absence of perspective plans for the ~~national~~ outlay and development of new cities. In Stalinabad a general plan for the future development of the city did exist but its provisions were often violated. In one of this city's wards, for instance, a mushroom settlement of small private houses had sprung up with authorization from the city council. The Stalinabad Textile Kombinat had also allowed building to be constructed astride a projected main road and had persisted in erecting buildings without construction permits. To stop these unhealthy practices the Stalinabad municipality had now decided to prohibit all further unauthorized constructions, to make up a list of projected new buildings and work out an integrated plan for all new construction projects. Development plans for Leninabad, Ura, Tyube and Kanibadam were meanwhile practically non-existent or had great defects. There was a general lack of planning also in respect of new cities. In Yangi Yul, for instance, along the main road in line with a few monumental buildings comprising a winter cinema, an apartment house for the personnel of a local mill and a monumental edifice to house the city's Turkish baths, one-storeyed houses had been allowed to go up even though preliminary surveys demanded the main road to be eventually lined with large buildings only.

The population of Yangi Yul following the expansion of its industries was expected to grow considerably in 1949-1950. Unplanned construction of temporary buildings was consequently likely to interfere with the more permanent development of the city and was to be drastically stopped. In the case of Begovat no final overall plan had so far been approved but present building activities were already following the lines of the provisional scheme. Begovat was an important city whose development was assured, thanks to the Farhad hydro-electric station and Begovat's metallurgical, cement and pipe works. There was, however, the danger of its growing in a haphazard way. Neither had the Uzbek coal city of Angren any final blue prints for its lay out.

Timely and effective co-ordination of municipal matters by central departments and ministries was not up to the mark. At Frunze, for instance the city council refused to co-operate fully with the government's motor transport service. As a result the city population suffered from a lack of proper bus service. Construction plans in Alma Ata had suffered from a similar absence of departmental co-operation. Cases were registered in Alma Ata when work on two adjoining construction sites had to be interrupted in one instance due to a shortage of bricks and in the other to that of cement. Had a co-ordination centre existed in the capital of Kazakhstan such uncalled for delays could have been, of course, totally avoided.

There was much careless inattention and red tape in carrying out day by day construction and maintenance tasks. In Frunze many improvements plans vital to the welfare of the population were not fully carried out in 1948 only because they had been smothered under the weight of files and departmental correspondence. As a result part of Dzhezhinskaya street was cut off in the rainy season from the centre and impassable to both pedestrians and motor traffic. Children were often unable to attend school in this locality and doctors could not visit their patients - thanks to indifferent attention paid by the city council to the immediate welfare of the population.

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A constant shortage of building materials was experienced by most Russian Central Asian cities. In Alma Ata the building material industries were sadly behind in output and totally unable to cope with the increased demand for materials caused by an extension of reconstruction and development plans. 1946 was considered a decisive year for the implementing of the Stalin Five-Year Plan. But results had been poorly already in 1947 and there was much anxiety over achievement of production targets in the building industries in 1948. More bricks, cement lime, tiles were an absolute necessity to enable current plans to be fully carried out. In 1947 plans of the Ministry of Building Materials alone had short-delivered 13 million bricks and 1,820 tons of lime. The Krasnaya Zvezda plant had remained criminally idle during the whole month of March due to a shortage of fuel though fuel could have been readily obtained from a distance of merely 16 kilometres which had not been done through sheer negligence and ineptitude. Demands for more building materials came also from Uzbekistan where shortages were acutest in bricks and lime, the production target for lime having been executed only to the extent of 55%, while improvement of technological processes at brick factories had been similarly poor. Work at the kilns was not rhythmically carried out. Neither were bricks presses working at full capacity since they were producing less than twenty thousand bricks per unit against a normal output of twenty five thousand. Production of lime lagged behind mostly because the Krasnaya Zvezda plant had throughout the year been inadequately provided with fuel. Mechanisation of work and its full utilisation at building plants was meanwhile poorly applied mainly because of insufficient guidance on the part of the Ministry of Building Materials.

A permanent shortage of qualified labour was experienced in most Central Asian cities while turnover among labour contingents remained excessive as workmen were reluctant to join building gangs not properly provided with housing and cultural amenities. The shortage of artisans was so acute that Tashkent house-owners were unable to carry out current repairs to their homes. The "artels" of artisans qualified to deal with small repairs were in fact since the war totally inadequate to deal with existing demands and the complaint was now no longer of a shortage of building materials but of labour hands.

There were many shortcomings in the work of regional architects and the execution of their projects was at times technically poor. Plans for the Kirghiz National Museum were for instance in flat violation of original designs approved by the Kirghiz Government, though they had been ultimately passed by the Union of Kirghiz architects. In the opinion of critics this museum building had become a "brilliant example of the distortion of the idea that architecture should be national in form and socialist in content as the form of the Museum merely signified a return to nomadic Kirghizia and was purely formal copy of an outmoded style. The absence of socialist content made the building appear unspeakably primitive. As a whole it did not create an image of Kirghiz national culture. But architects occasionally went wrong even on more routine construction jobs. The miners' settlement of Sel Reh (Tajikistan), for instance, was constructed without much consideration to sanitation demands and in Stalinabad an apartment house of 16 flats was recently put up with narrow slit windows which did not admit sufficient light.

It was generally contended that architectural designs had to be to a greater extent standardised and architects taught to think in complex architectural ensembles involving larger units than that of a single purpose building. Prominent architects including several Moscow and Leningrad architects were recently invited to Kazakhstan to aid in the

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design and construction of some of Alma Ata's principal buildings among which was a large architectural ensemble to house the Kazakh Academy of Sciences in a downtown section of Alma Ata. The author of the design was Academician Shchusev, one of Russia's most popular architects and the builder of the new theatre in Tashkent, and his design for this new Alma Ata building based on national Kazakh motifs promised to be one of the future sights of the city. From Uzbekistan came complaints that architectural practices were not free from Formalism and "constructivism" and similar anti-realistic tendencies. It seems that form had been treated by certain architects in Uzbekistan as a predominant factor without much connection with its contents. There were, for instance, buildings practically devoid of windows. Many buildings had been constructed in an ornate flashy style. Generally, it seems, there was too much enthusiasm among Uzbek architects for a pseudo-oriental style in architecture. Local architects at the same time remained too much of a "clique". Little "bolshevik" criticism was allowed among their ranks and there was too much enthusiasm over paper achievements. A modern Uzbek style of architecture, it was alleged, could only be created by "utilizing the most progressive and artistic forms of the Uzbek inheritance which were to be combined with the practical and aesthetic demands of the people. They were to be based on locally available building materials and on the natural and climatic conditions prevalent in Uzbekistan." Uzbek cities were to have a style which was to "integrate their ancient oriental features with modern trends in European architecture. The best features with old Central Asian town architecture were thus recommended to be preserved though at the same time augmented by paved streets, large apartment houses and public buildings and other modern city facilities. Present reconstruction plans for Tashkent aimed to make the Uzbek capital a model city in Soviet Central Asia. Much work on these lines was also to be done for the reconstruction of Samarkand, Ferghana, Khiva, Bukhara and of other large cities.

City councils were meanwhile admonished carefully to consider their reconstruction plans in order to prevent destruction of historical monuments since certain architects were inclined to disregard the claims of ancient architectural monuments to a continued existence. There were among them individuals who had offered, for instance, completely to reconstruct ancient Hujent (Leninabad) on the lines of a new model city. A similar proposal had been made in regard to Ura Tyube. Such a sweeping attitude was in the opinion of the local press entirely wrong as the "contours" of a city were the result of centuries of development and were to be wherever possible faithfully followed without demolishing outstanding historical buildings. The city of Bukhara was a veritable museum and 33 of its ancient monuments were held in protective custody. But the provisions made for their conservation, it seems, were not fool-proof. The gates Sheikh Djalyal in the walls of the city which had fully retained their sixteenth century aspect should have been by all means preserved as a monument of feudal fortifications. Unfortunately the bricks and foundation stones of this gate were being rapidly used up by persons in search of building materials. It was even alleged that the town administration was itself culpable of using building materials from its prescribed area to effect repairs to other city buildings. At the same time modern buildings were constructed in the very centre of Bukhara next to buildings of medieval architecture. The two styles clashed and their intermingling could not improve the general aspect of this ancient city.

Plans for capital construction or capital repairs in Central Asia were not being carried out within approved time-schedules. In Kirghizia for instance, plans for capital repairs to buildings had been carried out in the city of Frshevalsk only to the extent of 46%. In 1947 construction of public baths had been started in Kirghizia in eighteen regional centres

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but by summer of 1948 not one of these buildings had been completed. To Tajikistan the Council of Ministers had publicly admitted that progress in the task of adapting buildings to severe winter conditions had been extremely slow, while plans for capital repairs to buildings had been executed only to the extent of 37.2%. Special mention was made in this connection of Kulyab and the towns of the Leninabad region. In Stalinabad only 48.2% of capital repairs had been completed, while plans for capital construction in the first half of 1948 had been advanced only to 37% of the target. To meet demands tenants were at times allowed to occupy incomplete houses which meant that certain minor details and adjustments to their buildings would never be carried out. In Kerki and Kunya Urgench (Turkmenia) plans for capital construction were delayed from year to year and decisions to speed up construction were never timely implemented.

In 1947 most buildings in Frunze had to go without current repairs altogether. In Tajikistan the standard of repair work was invariably low. Some attention was, of course, paid to petty running repairs but little to jobs requiring a higher standard of technical efficiency. Seasonal repairs, though important, were seldom timely attended to, but little anxiety was shown on approach of winter conditions. In Stalinabad even buildings housing the personnel of the local militia remained in bad need of repairs and were not properly looked after. The yards of these buildings were often littered with refuse. The "aryk" water supply system was also irregularly maintained and the ditches were not properly cleaned. Hydrants used by the population were in misuse and the watertanks of the city of Isfara and Kaganovichabad had become veritable conveyers of disease. From Tashkent came the complaint that even streets in the central part of the city were poorly lit or not lit at all. Lamps had been hung up too high and their lighting power was insufficient. Municipal tram-cars had not been overhauled to suit winter conditions and it was thought that some of their roofs would leak in the first autumn rain. Around public water hydrants pools of water were regularly accumulating. They would be covered with ice in the winter and would present a hindrance and danger to water users. Repairs to public baths in Tajikistan had not been seriously maintained and bath houses were not properly equipped for the cold winter weather. In Frunze more than a million roubles had been assigned for street repairs and 6 1/2 kilometres of roads could have been paved with the use of this money but nothing has been so far done. The same was true of Stalinabad where streets continued to be poorly kept. Watering of Tashkent street was done only occasionally and there seemed to be no authority to enforce it being done twice daily.

Capital construction in many cities had been much delayed. In Alma Ata several buildings including the new University building and the office of the Non-Ferrous Geological Survey Trust had been under construction for a number of years. In planning new buildings in this city there was little thought of undertaking "combined operations" as there existed no single organization to co-ordinate construction. Last season work was proceeding in Alma Ata on 73 buildings valued at 64 million roubles of which 60 were being constructed by 15 different public building concerns and trusts while the remaining 13 by their owners. As a result labour, building materials and mechanisation means were most unequally distributed. Only 670 workmen were employed on these manifold jobs, that is not over ten men to ~~each~~ each building, which had led to the piling up of construction costs, while the number of administrative and technical personnel was out of proportion to the number of labourers. The "Kazakhkadamstroi" had one administrator for every three workers, while the "Almaatastrois" employed 49 supervisors and technical personnel for its absence of proper co-ordination. It had become apparent, however, only in 1948 that most of

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these difficulties and shortages could have been done away with through an equitable distribution of labour, technical personnel, equipment and of building materials.

A municipal notification on sanitary conditions in Stalinabad dated April, 1948, demanded that all accumulation of rubbish and refuse was to be cleared away by the 15th of the month in preparation for May Day celebrations. Streets and public squares from April 15th were to be swept twice daily and all public latrines cleaned monthly. Buildings were also to be whitewashed for the occasion. The penalties for infringement of these regulations were a fine of 100 roubles or a month in jail. There was much general neglect in this city and from press reports it was evident that even the Komsomolsk lake in Stalinabad had not been properly cared for. The outlet from this lake to the Nissar canal had been for some reason stopped and its waters had become stagnant and overgrown with weeds. Trees planted on its banks had been damaged or uprooted. Rowing on the lake was no longer possible as the rowing boats had been damaged or leaked. Housewives washed clothes, truck drivers machines and horsemen their horses in this pleasure lake originally opened for the amusement of Stalinabad citizens. Then it was alleged that even cesspools in the city were not regularly flushed. Its main streets was also cut up with ruts while the small aryk bridges had become dangerous to cross.

Spring cleaning was overdue in Tashkent. A municipal notification dated March 25, 1948, admitted that the streets of the city were littered with rubbish and refuse and were insanitary. Sections of some of the streets had actually been turned into vegetable gardens or used for the dumping of house refuse. The "aryk" system had meanwhile become ~~partly~~ partly contaminated. Streets were swept only after nine in the morning when they were crowded with pedestrians. In the Lenin ward of the city many streets in the rainy season became impassable, neither were they properly lit and at night it was easy to stumble and fall into an irrigation ditch. Even Tashkent asphalted streets were neglected and seldom swept. From Turkmenia came the same complaint with the curious refrain that for some reason the local militia stood aloof in enforcing sanitary conditions and hesitated to interfere to uphold municipal sanitation rules.

A recent Stalinabad municipal notification on measures against fire hazards disclosed that fire hazards in Central Asian cities were to this day considerable. This notification among other things prohibited the use of yards and compounds as a dumping ground for house or factory waste or refuse. The opening of theatres, cinemas and the holding of theatrical and circus performances without a permit from the fire-prevention authorities was strictly prohibited. Street bonfires and campfires were disallowed. It was not permitted to store in a house over eight litres of kerosene per family or to leave without supervision burning primus stoves or hot electric irons. The drying of firewood on the huge Russian kitchen stoves was prohibited. Kerosene ceiling lamps were allowed to be hung up only at a specified height from the ceiling. Storing firewood on staircases and the making of fireworks were also prohibited. Infringement of any of these regulations led to a fine of one hundred roubles or a month in jail.

Town councils were occasionally enforcing regulations in respect of public behaviour. An Ashkhabad municipal announcement was recently issued to regulate the behaviour of children and juveniles in amusement halls. Children under 16 were denied the right to purchase tickets to cinemas and theatres on weekdays during the school term when not accompanied by their parents. They were also prohibited from visiting theatres after eight o'clock. Children and juveniles were not allowed to sell cigarettes or matches in the streets, to make use of the running boards of trams and buses in motion or

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or to ride bicycles in streets and city squares. Sale of alcoholic drinks to juveniles was strictly prohibited. To enforce these regulations adult citizens were entrusted with the duty of observing the behaviour of children at public gatherings and in cases of misbehaviour of reporting them to their parents or to the militia. Cinema chashiers and theatre and amusement hall managers found guilty of breaking these rules could be fined 100 roubles or jailed for a month.

Town councils were entrusted with the task of evolving plans for the procurement of supplies and with the provision of adequate trade facilities for the population. This, it was alleged, was not always efficiently done and it was reported from Alma Ata as late as August that the town council had not even then made adequate arrangements for provisioning the population and that on August 19th procurement of vegetables had amounted to only 31.3% of requirements and that of potatoes to less than 2%. Coal procurement plans had been executed on that date only to the extent of 79% and of firewood (sakaul) to 87%. Tashkent, the capital of Uzbekistan, was to have imported ~~last~~ last year 85,077 tons of vegetables, 59,644 tons of potatoes and 42,000 tons of fruit. These quantities were considerable and it was advocated for Tashkent to have its own vegetable procurement zone on which it could depend for its regular supplies. In the past 134 kolkhoz estates had been appointed to supply Tashkent with fruits, vegetables and ~~various~~ cereals but even then supplies had to be often brought from more distant localities. It seemed, however, that the Tashkent council had no definite policy in respect of procurement as as in 1948 of the 134 officially catering kolkhoses one hundred were for some reason allowed to go over to the planting of technical cultures.

Educational matters and cultural amenities for the population held likewise the attention of town councils. Numerous petty complaints were continuously brought to them which, as a ~~matter~~ matter of fact, reflected upon the general level of civilisation of the regions involved. At Stalinabad, for instance, the city telephone directory had become entirely outdated as the last directory was printed four years ago. Since the war great changes had taken place in the composition of the city population and many war-time organisations had been either liquidated outright or had left the city. But no steps had been taken to get out a revised edition. In Stalinabad, as alleged, there was nowhere one could get on a hot day a glass of fresh drinking water as street kiosks sold at exorbitant prices only lemonade and flavoured waters. As a result the bill of a thirsty individual on a hot day easily ran up to four or more roubles. In other words, while a man was paying thirty roubles as house rent, his soft drink bill would reach 120 roubles monthly. In the same city the town address enquiry office which as in old czarist days, was operated by the police was managed in a bureaucratic manner and it was no easy matter to procure in a hurry an accurate reference. Meanwhile in Alma Ata there was continuous trouble with the municipal electric clocks which after short use showed different times and were totally unreliable. Then there was the case of the Samarkand municipal printing press which had dumped on the market millions of copy books having on the back page a multiplication tale which to the amazement of pupils and teachers alike showed that six times three equals 16 while seven times five equals 36.

An important and pleasant municipal task was the planting of trees and the care of gardens and parks. In this task bureaucratic methods of approach were, however, also not infrequent. 75,000 decorative plants were planted in 1948 in Stalinabad, though it was pessimistically predicted that most of these young plants would not survive their first year because of wanton negligence in the matter of their maintenance. Alma Ata papers complained in turn that to plant trees and shrubs was an easy task compared with that of protecting their normal continuous growth. Cows would often invade the well-kept grass lawns doing irreparable damage to grass and the young plants. Signboards were often nailed to trees and tree branches used

for wiring and the putting up of swings for children. Lawns and flower beds

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were even used sometimes as a place to dump refuse. Progress in tree planting was thus only patchy though many town councils had made extensive plans to provide greater and better space for gardens and public parks. In Tashkent it was intended, for instance, to lay out new Botanical Gardens for use by the Academy of Sciences as a visual propaganda centre for Soviet biological science. The Gardens were to occupy an area of 120 hectares and were to be equipped with spacious hot-houses and demonstration halls. The central part of the Gardens was to be devoted to the elucidation of Darwin's theories and of the evolution of the vegetable world and to what was known in Russia as "creative" Darwinism. Ten million roubles had been initially set aside for these gardens which, it was thought, would eventually become the best in the USSR. Climatic conditions for the success of this venture were favourable and there were also ample irrigation facilities. Money was no obstacle. Curiously enough the Kirov ward in Tashkent in which the park was to be opened had delayed the granting of land and had interfered in other ways with the speedy achievement of the plans. The planting of trees and the laying out of gardens and parks was anyhow a pleasant feature of municipal activities. It included the laying out of boulevards, parks and gardens which task from now was to be even more vigorously pursued as ideas of intensive afforestation of the land were becoming more and more popular in the RSFSR.

Many Uzbek cities had modern waterworks, a feature of communal life unknown to the old cities of Central Asia. During the next five years water-mains were to be laid in all of the principal towns of Uzbekistan and the existing supply system in the five cities of the republic was to be considerably expanded. The plant to be built in Tashkent was to have a daily capacity of 150,000 cub. metres of water. A novel feature in Uzbekistan was the use of gas which was to be widely introduced during the next five years. Andijan had already switched over to gas its whole economy including several industrial enterprises, hotels, public baths and restaurants. A plant producing gas from local coal was to be likewise built near Tashkent to supply the needs of Uzbekistan's capital.

To conclude our scattered remarks on the growth of the municipal economy of Central Asian cities we may refer additionally to the city of Krasnovodsk. These last two decades Krasnovodsk had developed into an important industrial centre possessing oil refineries, ship repairing and port facilities, a railway terminus, etc. To accommodate its growing population over 30,000 sq. metres of housing space had been handed over in 1947-48 to the municipality by the building trusts. Provisions made in the city's 1948 budget for social and cultural needs amounted to over nine million roubles. It was enthusiastically maintained in the regional press that the city has been by now reconstructed and renovated to that extent that it could be rightly regarded as a brand new town. In view of its importance as a port of entry strict surveillance was maintained over all arriving and departing steamers and passengers and over sanitary conditions at the railway and port terminal. There still remained, however, much room for city improvements and it was sometimes alleged that the overall conduct of municipal affairs even in this "progressive" city was not always up to the mark. The council was blamed for the fact that the local "artisan" arts and crafts were quite unable to cope with the growing needs of the population and that the buildings recently put up had many defects as supervision over construction work by the city authorities had been deficient. Then the City's suburbs were neglected and in outlying districts there were no good markets and no regular means for communication with the centre. Procurement of vegetables and of other daily supplies had not been properly organised and constituted to this day a problem. The hotels of the city were also badly managed. Judging by these observations progress in Krasnovodsk was not uniform. Much remained to be done to improve conditions in this city which was not always easy as most of the drawbacks were inherent in the soviet system.

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Sundays and holidays were occasionally used in Central Asia for the purpose of utilising the population on a "voluntary" basis to clean up roads and perform other civic duties. Arrangements made for these drives were, however, not invariably successful as the public did not always respond to the pious appeals of the authorities and failed to attend the rallies. In Ashkhabad, for instance, on a certain Sunday only 38 workers turned up out of 50 from the Metallist Works and then they worked only for one hour after ~~which~~ which they dispersed. In the Andreev ward of Ashkhabad of 400 only 38 turned up on October 18th and they soon went home without having done much ~~xxxxxx~~ useful work. Apart from a natural reluctance on the part of the public the partial failure of all such schemes was due to poor planning in the allotment of tasks and generally to a confused policy in publicising the nature and duration of such social rallies.

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KAZAKH ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

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Press Reports confirm the election of the prominent Kazakh scientist and public worker Kanish Satpaev as first President of the new Kazakh Academy of Sciences. Among the outstanding speeches ~~after~~ at this session was the speech made by Academician I.P. Bardin of the USSR Academy of Sciences on the importance of Kazakhstan in the development in the USSR of iron and steel metallurgy.

"June 1st saw the opening in Alma Ata of the Academy of Sciences of the republic, an event constituting a major stage in the development of science in Kazakhstan.

"In 1932 the Academy of Sciences of the USSR opened a research centre in Alma Ata to help promote the development of Kazakhstan's productive forces and raise the republic's national culture. The centre's work was so successful that in 1938 the Academy reorganised it into a Branch of the Academy with a number of research institutes.

"The Branch made substantial progress, especially during the war and by the time it was elevated to the status of an independent academy the Kazakh Branch consisted of 36 scientific research institutes, 8 sections, 7 scientific experimental bases and 3 botanical gardens. It had a staff of 864 research and technical workers - 337 of them Kazakhs.

"The Branch played no small part in training scientific personnel from among the local population. In 1945 alone 21 Kazakhs defended dissertations for scientific degrees. A number of Kazakh scientists are women.

"That the Kazakh Republic has acquired an independent academy of sciences is due to the important work conducted by Kazakh scholars assisted by Russian scientists and guided by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR.

"Kazakh scientists are working in many fields of research. Most outstanding are the achievements of geologists. Thanks to their devoted labours in this country, which only a quarter of a century ago was a backward agrarian area, now mines a substantial share of the Soviet ~~industrial enterprises~~ Union's copper, lead, zinc and other important minerals. Large industrial enterprises have been built to process this raw material, including large non-ferrous metals plants like the Balhash Copper Smelting and the Chimkent Lead Works as well as ferro-alloys, tungsten, molybdenum and ore-concentration plants.

"Kazakh scientists have made important contributions to research on the republic's soil, flora and fauna. Their work has been found extremely useful, improving the pedigree and productivity of livestock and in solving ~~xx~~ similar problems.

"Much has been done to study the history, language, culture of the ~~republics~~ republic and to guide the activities of Kazakhstan's scientists of whom there are more than 1,200."

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In a statement by N. Undasimov, Prime Minister of the Kazakh Republic, the opening of the Kazakh Academy at Alma Ata is considered to have the utmost importance reflecting the general cultural achievements with the territory of the republic since the revolution. He recalled that before the revolution Kazakhstan was one of the most backward parts of Czarist Russia, this being due to a deliberate policy of the former Imperial Government to choke the development of Kazakhstan's national economy and its phenomenal natural riches. ~~KAZAKHSTAN IS A COUNTRY WITH A LARGE POPULATION~~ According to Undasimov there were 98 illiterates to the hundred before the introduction of compulsory education in the republic. However, there are now $7\frac{1}{2}$ times more children among the population attending schools than there were in 1914-1915 and 18.5 times more among the Kazakhs themselves. The network of schools has grown sixty-fold. All text books are now in the native language. There are 131 newspapers in the Kazakh language with a total print order of 371,000 copies. Against 1913, when only 13 books with a print order of 4,000 were published, a total of 111 books with a circulation of two million were published in 1945. Turning to scientific work and researches in the Kazakh Republic Undasimov stressed the spectacular achievements of Russian and Kazakh geologists in Kazakhstan which enabled the republic to occupy a leading position in the production of ferrous and non-ferrous metals, such as copper, lead, silver, and zinc. "As a result of their geological surveys and explorations we have been able to erect the Balhash Copper Smelting works, the Chimkent lead works and a number of wolfram and molybdenum concentration plants. The Dzhezdinsk manganese mines enabled us to supply the Urals with manganese ore at a critical time of the war." According to Undasimov the industrial output in the national economy of Kazakhstan has increased from 6.3% in 1920 to 66% ~~which enabled Kazakhstan to become part of the war arsenal of the USSR.~~

The natural reserves of Kazakhstan by another source have been summarised as follows: "The Republic has 99% of the total corundum reserves of the USSR, 91% of the country's salt and 74% of its vanadium, while the corresponding figure for chromium is 71, for borax 69, silver and cadmium 67, lead 48, zinc 50 and copper 51%."

The reorganization of the Kazakh Branch of the USSR Academy of Sciences into a full-fledged independent academic body was made possible by the strenuous efforts of both Russian and Kazakh scientists during the last 13 years but especially since the beginning of the war, when the lines on which academic research will obviously continue were first firmly established.

To arrive at an estimate of what the Kazakh Academy may achieve in the future for the development of Kazakhstan's national economy it seems therefore worthwhile to briefly summarise an article written by Satpaev, the first President of the Academy, which was published in 1945 in the Bulletins of the USSR Academy of Sciences, as his article gives a general outline of the work of the various sections and institutes of this former branch of the Moscow Academy of Sciences.

INSTITUTE OF GEOLOGY. (1) The Institute of Geology undertook an urgent war-time job, the exploration of the manganese ore reserves of the republic which led to the adoption of plans for the exploitation of the Dzhezdinsk fields. The fields since 1942 have already yielded sufficient manganese ore to provide the Magnitogorsk metallurgical works with ferro-manganese and their available reserves of manganese ore are considered to be quite sufficient to serve in the future the Karaganda metallurgical works in the Kazakhstan itself. Started as a war measure to supply Magnitogorsk these mines which are now connected by rail with Magnitogorsk will not have to be abandoned as they will serve the local industries of Kazakhstan.

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(2) In 1942 the Institute completed researches which enabled us to start work on the Karaganda metallurgical works with a target capacity of 100,000 tons of steel per annum, the nucleus for a future metallurgical base in Central Kazakhstan.

(3) In Southern Kazakhstan the Institute completed its survey of the Abail iron ore mines, a field to be used by the Begovat metallurgical works under construction in Uzbekistan.

(4) Its surveys of non-ferrous, rare and dispersed metals have led to the discovery of rich copper ores in Dzhezkazgan for use by the Balhash Copper Smelting works which now receive 50% of their requirements from Dzhezkazgan, of copper and lead in Central Kazakhstan, of new fields of nickel ores, molybdenum and ~~xxx~~ wolfram and in the Turgai district of a concentration of mercury in antimony ores.

(5) Surveys of the rare metal and mixed ore beds of Central and Southern Kazakhstan have also led to the discovery of traces of uranium in sufficient quantities for industrial working. This discovery has prompted the planning of further large research expeditions into these districts.

(6) Mineral Fuels. An exhaustive survey of coal deposits in north-eastern Kazakhstan where 90 % of the coal deposits of Kazakhstan are concentrated has now been completed and should considerably help in the future development of the coal reserves of the republic. Surveys of peat fields in northern Kazakhstan have also been undertaken. The Keltemash atsky field of brown coal has now been set aside as a coal base for the supply of coal to Alma Ata.

(7) River surveys, cartographical work, etc. More than 150 rivers in Southern and Eastern Kazakhstan have now been surveyed hydrologically and as sources for the development of hydro-electrical power. The map section of the Survey Department has completed a "structural" map of Central "rudny" (ore-bearing) Kara Tau in the scale of 1:50,000 and a tectonic map of Central Kazakhstan in the scale of 1:500,000.

INSTITUTE OF METALLURGICAL CHEMISTRY. The work of this Institute began in 1942 and was mostly devoted to research work on methods of copper extraction from oxidized ores and on the technology of producing "thermo-phosphates" from the phosphates of the Kara Tau basin.

INSTITUTE OF SOIL AND BOTANY. This Institute completed a soil map of Kazakhstan in the scale of 1:1,000,000 and has prepared for publication five volumes on the flora of Kazakhstan. Botanical Gardens of the Institute were maintained at Alma Ata, Karaganda and in the Altai Mountains. The Institute also conducted experiments in respect of the practicability of introducing tea planting in various parts of Kazakhstan.

INSTITUTE OF ZOOLOGY AND ZOOTECHNICS. Experiments have been carried out for the inter-breeding of the wild ram/ahar/with merino sheep.

THE LINGUISTIC SECTION of the Kazakh Branch of the Academy has produced a grammar of the Kazakh language and a Russian-Kazakh Military Dictionary which proved a most useful publication for the training of Kazakh soldiers during the war. A Russian-Kazakh Dictionary is also about to be completed as well as a fundamental Kazakh Language Dictionary in the Kazakh language which will incorporate the entire vocabulary of the Kazakh people. A new Kazakh alphabet on the basis of the Russian Script has also been introduced. The collection of folklore literature has been energetically continued. The first volume on the history of Kazakh literature has also been completed.

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THE GEOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC sections have completed a detailed geographic and economic survey of the Alma Ata district. A monograph on transport with a historical sketch on the development of the transport network in the republic has also been completed. Special surveys have likewise been made of the glaciers of the Trans-Ili Ala Tau.

In the final words of Undaginov: "We have no doubt that scientists of Kazakhstan will be prominently represented in Soviet Science and that their work will further contribute to the growth of the economic and military greatness of our great homeland/Russia/"

KARAGANDA COAL MINES. The five-year plan envisages the sinking of a further 17 coal pits with a capacity of $6\frac{1}{2}$ million tons in the Karaganda coalfields, of four pits capable of producing 270,000 tons of coal annually in the Aktyubinsk field and the development of an open cut with an output of 600,000 tons in the Ekibastuz field (the second in importance field of Kazakhstan). The target for coal production in the whole of Kazakhstan has now been fixed at 16,400,000 tons. A further development in its initial stage will be the exploration of fifty new mine sites with an average capacity of 35 million tons including 23,000,000 tons of coking coal in the Karaganda district.

Latest press news from Karaganda confirm further progress in the development of the Karaganda coal basin which in its importance to the national economy of the USSR occupies third place after the Donbas and the Kuzbas. Thus in the Saransk coal district of the Karaganda fields five pits are being sunk capable of producing two million tons of coal per annum. Of these five new mines one will have a capacity of one million tons and will be the largest individual coal mine in the whole of the Soviet Union. 3 mines now under construction in the Karaganda fields are to come into operation already at the end of 1946.

The development of the Karaganda Coal district has been most striking considering that the coal output at Karaganda reached in 1940 a total of $4\frac{1}{2}$ million tons against 25,000 tons prior to the revolution. The tempo of this development has been especially rapid since 1942. From figures of the Five-Year Military Plan it seems evident that this pace of development is likely to be maintained also in peace time. It must be remembered that apart from having enormous coal reserves the Karaganda coal mines are most favourably situated for their future development. The fields are the most western of the Asiatic coal fields of the USSR and are closer to the Urals and the Volga region than the Kuzbas by 1000 km., in other words they occupy a very favorable position for their commercial exploitation. The coal deposits of Karaganda at the same time are not at a great depth with layers normally more than one meter thick and some reaching a thickness of eight meters. Despite these advantages it has been, however, frankly admitted that during the first year of the war production was lagging and that in 1941 Magnitogorsk ~~xxxxx~~ was able to use only about 30-35% of Karaganda coal, the balance reaching Magnitogorsk mostly from the Kuzbas, hampering transport facilities on sections of the Trans-Siberian Railway which had to be used for the haulage of Kuznetsk coal. Another feature of the Karaganda coal fields is that Karaganda coal is used only to a small extent in the Karaganda industrial district. Thus in 1941 only 10% of locally produced coal was used up by Karaganda industries and not more than 20% with a radius of 700km. from the mines, whereas Donbas coal was used up to the extent of 60% in the Ukrainian SSR and the Moscow District while within a radius of 600km. from the Donbas over 90% of the entire output was entirely utilized. The figures for the Kuznetsk area are 40% used up by local industries. The small quantity of coal used locally in the Karaganda district itself reveals the comparative state of under-development of Karaganda industries. Coal from Karaganda has to be hauled over considerable distances and requires therefore from the Karaganda mines the mining of coal of high quality and its export in a fairly clean condition "without any ballast."

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The coal shipped to Magnitogorsk is for technical coking purposes. This feature demands the enriching of the coking properties of Karaganda coal by processing coal at its place of production.

Recommendations contained in a scientific paper published in 1942 urged the undertaking of further large geological surveys in Karaganda. War conditions undoubtedly interfered with this work which has now again been taken up on a large scale.

DZHAMBUL (MIRZOYAN) KARA-TAU MINING DISTRICT CENTRE. The Five-Year Plan calls for the development of the mining resources of the Kara-Tau mountains in Southern Kazakhstan which are rich in phosphates. The fields lie north-west of Dzhambul city where a superphosphate plant is planned to be put up by 1950. The mines themselves are already in operation at a site at the foot of the Kara-Tau mountains skirted by the Tamba river. Near the mines the Tamba river reservoir has now been completed and has a dam 800 meters long and 12 meters high and a capacity of eight million cu. meters of water. The chemical "combine" of the Kara-Tau mountains is intended to supply fertilizers for the cotton, sugar-beet, "Kenaf" and sunflower plantations of Kazakhstan. The future construction of a superphosphate plant at Dzhambul itself is to do away with the uneconomical haulage of raw materials over a considerable distance for processing to other existing plants.

Dzhambul city is planned as a centre for sugar refining in a district where sugar-beet planting is rapidly developing. A leather tanning (chrome leather) plant is also in operation at Dzhambul.

ALMA ATA. Alma Ata, capital of Kazakhstan, lying in a zone affected by frequent earthquakes continues to be described as one of the most beautiful cities in the USSR. In the words of a reporter "Alma Ata lies at the foot of the northern slopes of the Trans-Ili Ala Tau mountains and is buried in apple orchards. The straight asphalted avenues are lined with quadruple rows of pyramidal poplars and through the streets run streams of water disappearing beyond the city limits in the thirsty soil of the arid plains."

11 million roubles were set aside in 1946 for house construction in Alma Ata. The new buildings will include two large living "combines" (service flats), six 18 apartment houses and 100 standard homes for workers of the Kirov works. They will thus provide an additional 13,500 sq. meters of living space. Other city improvements include: the planting of 17,600 decorative plants and of 16,000 fruit-bearing trees, the construction of a summer theatre, of a cinema and the placing of 28 statues of "Panfilov" heroes as well as of a monument to General Panfilov on one of the city avenues. The new Five-Year Plan also directs the construction of the main building of the Kazakhstan Academy of Sciences to house the Presidium of the Academy and its sections. This building will also have an auditorium for 700 people, a library, a museum, exhibition rooms and a printing press.

Alma Ata suffered from earthquakes in 1887 and 1910. The new buildings are reported to be designed so as to withstand earthquake shocks.

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KAZAKHSTAN

(Nov. - Dec. 1946.)

LOCUSTS. The campaign this year for the extermination of locusts conducted by the U.S.S.R. Ministry of Agriculture has been successfully concluded. The Ministry despatched in all a total of seventeen expeditions to Kazakhstan, the Kara Kalpak A.S.S.R. and to the Grozny district in Caucasia, which had at their disposal a number of aeroplanes for spraying the affected areas in the deltas of rivers and in the lake districts. The expedition, as reported, have succeeded in checking the mass exodus of locusts from their breeding places.

SHEEP-BREEDING. "A valuable new breed of fine fleeced sheep has been evolved at the Kazak Livestock Institute after 14 years of research on crossing the coarse-fleeced Kazakh fat-tailed sheep, noted for their hardiness and weight, with fine fleeced merino rams.

"The Institute has now 1,775 heads of the new breed, exclusive of this year's lambs. Averaging 65 kgs. in weight, full-grown rams have produced an average of 7.6 kgs. of nearly 10 cm. fleece at each shearing, and ewes weighing 64 kgs. on the hoof, 4.27 kgs of wool.

"The new breed is as well adapted as the fat-tailed sheep and better than other pure-bred sheep to pasturing in the open all the year round which often involves driving the flocks 200-250 km. from winter to summer pastures and back. The new breed has been recommended by the People's Ministry of Agriculture for official registration.

"Sheep raising is the main branch of livestock farming in Kazakhstan. Sheep comprise nearly 70 % of all stock. Herds are to be nearly doubled by 1950, which will make the Kazakh republic second only to the Russian Federation in number of sheep."

The goal for sheep and goats raising towards the end of 1950 in Kazakhstan has been fixed in the codified Five-Year Plan at 19,050,000 including 15,000,000 on collective farms.

Sheep breeders in Kazakhstan are now following the policy of pasturing their flocks all the year round, involving the migration of sheep in search of fodder and suitable climatic conditions over large areas, a policy which was first regarded retrograde but has now been universally adopted as most suitable to the national economy of Kazakhstan.

Until recently sheep farmers were unable to benefit from information on meteorological conditions collected by the main meteorological stations of the republic. A decision has now been reached to open a series of small stations throughout the districts of the main pasture lands visited by herds of sheep during their migration all the year round. These stations are to be established in the Kzyl-Kum desert, at Tarlyn, near lake Dengiz and in the Balkhash area.

SCIENCE IN KAZAKHSTAN. At a general meeting of the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh S.S.R. devoted to the Five year Plan for scientific research in the republic, the President of the Academy, Satpaev, recently submitted a report, particulars of which are not yet available.

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~~The Academy's work~~

The Academy's work according to the general outline of this report is to be conducted on 160 major scientific problems, entailing the despatch of some 900 expeditions during the five year period by the various institutes and bases of the Academy. The network of academic bases is also to be considerably enlarged, new branches of the Academy to be opened in Central, Eastern and Western Kazakhstan and new bases in Kzhezkazgan, Kustanai, Semipalatinsk and in the Chu river valley. The annual budget of the Academy by 1950 is to reach 135 million roubles.

An earlier telegram from Alma Ata in June mentioned that a total of 140 scientific expeditions would operate in the widely scattered districts of the republic including forty equipped to explore the mineral resources of the republic. Three expeditions to Northern Kazakhstan and the despatch of three scientific groups to the high mountain ranges of Southern Kazakhstan has been specifically mentioned. A large "complex" expedition is also to be despatched to the Basmakul copper fields.

NEW SUGAR REFINERY. A telegram from Taldy Kurgan reports progress in the construction of the Kara Bulak Sugar Refinery south-east of Taldy Kurgan in the foothills of the Dzungarsky Ala-Tau range. The main buildings of the new enterprise have already been constructed, the total area of the refinery occupying 250 hectares. A new settlement has also grown up and includes a hydro-electric station and a radio-centre.

In the current season the refinery will produce 100 wagon-loads of soft sugar. When in full operation its output will be 2,100 centners of sugar daily.

THE ALMA ATA BOTANICAL GARDENS

"The Alma Ata Botanical Gardens which lie on approximately the same latitude as Boston, Mass., have acclimatized 30 varieties of trees and shrubs from various parts of the United States including the South.

"One of the largest in the Soviet Union, covering an area of nearly 250 acres in the foothills of the Ala Tau Mountains, the Alma Ata Botanical Gardens are at the same time one of the youngest.

"The staff of the Botanical Gardens are especially proud of their North American flora. Thousands of miles from their native surroundings the plants seem quite at home in their new environment. The latest event is the acclimatization of currant bushes from the Mississippi and the Missouri rivers, which are now bearing fruits.

"Fruits and berries from many countries are scattered over an area of about 60 acres. There are 202 varieties of apple trees alone, - from the hugh Alma-Ata 'apporte' which weighs half a kilogram to the Siberian crab apple, weighing about one gram. Apple trees from the Baltic grow side by side with trees from the Moscow area. There are winter-resisting cherries from Canada, Manchurian plum trees whose boughs are literally weighed to the ground with fruit, and a variety of cherries - the only one of its kind in the world - with spiked boughs and flat fruit.

"A good deal of experimental work is conducted at the Alma Ata Gardens on the cultivation of hardy varieties of berries for Central Kazakhstan. As a result of these researches berries and fruits are now grown successfully in Karaganda, the centre of Kazakhstan's coal industry.

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"A new variety of rye has also been developed. By using selection methods a cereal has been produced two metres high with several ears and good-quality grain. Last year 3.5 tons of this rye per hectare were already harvested and a harvest of four tons is expected this year.

"The Alma Ata Botanical Garden exchange seeds and horticultural information with colleagues in 20 towns in America, Britain, Canada, Australia and France."

KAZAKHSTAN (Jan. - Feb. 1947)

KAZAKHSTAN COPPER. The main copper-bearing areas in Kazakhstan, producing about 80% of Kazakhstan's copper are: Boschkul (south-west of Pavlodar and 85 km. west of Ekibastuz), where deposits have been estimated at two million tons, Karapok in the Greater Dzhezkazgan area, north-west of Lake Balkhash with deposits estimated at 3,017,000 tons and Kounrad (deposits 2,455,000 tons) just north of Lake Balkhash on whose desolate shores the new city of Balkhash and the Pre-Balkhash Copper Smelting Works now stand. The Kounrad mines in the Balkhash Lake area, though now connected with Karaganda and the north by rail, until recently were in an extremely remote part of Kazakhstan. Their development, however, has been spectacular and deserves a general description of their geographical setting.

Lake Balkhash, which as far as its size is concerned may be called the lake Ontario of Eurasia, justly deserves the name of "Dengiz" (sea) by which it has long been known to local nomads. Among enthusiastic Russian supporters of the forced industrialization of their country Balkhash has, however, become synonymous with copper mining and the possible development near its shores in the future of other mineral riches.

According to Russian sources Balkhash has an area of 18,740 sq. km.; it is 540 km. long 10 to 84 km. in width and lies at an altitude of 275 metres. In the past history of Turkestan the enormous basin of this lake and of its rivers has never been of any great importance as a region for permanent settlement, though it did provide at times a temporary halting state in the westward migration of peoples through the so-called "Dzungarian Gates," a depression between the ranges of the Tarbagatai and the Dzungarian Ala-Tau mountains, through which in ancient times waves of Mongols made their way into the Turan lowlands and thence into Eastern Europe. Although the lake has no outlets its waters, except in the still off-shore lagoons, remain fresh. It is usually frozen from November to April. Its greatest depth goes to about 11 metres in its western part and reaches 23 metres in the east. The summer temperature of the lake's waters ranges from 18 to 34 C. The fauna of the lake area is extremely poor, though in the reed growths along the shore wild boar still roam about and tigers are not uncommon. The shores of the lake, which in the north are in places deeply cut and on a miniature scale remind one of the fjords of Norway, until recently were wintering places for nomad Kazakhs, but remained practically uninhabited during the summer on account of myriads of insects which make pasturing well-nigh impossible.

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"In the Lake Balkhash area, according to a recent observer, one is greatly impressed by thickets of saksaul, a leafless, gnarled and shapeless tree (the "tree" of the desert) resembling something out of prehistoric times. One may wander for a whole day on the superheated sand in a forest of old saksaul trees without meeting a single living thing. There are neither birds nor animals. Everywhere reigns deathly silence."

In 1903 lake Balkhash was scientifically explored by the Russian geographer and zoologist Berg. Conditions there presented to him at first a number of difficult riddles. He discovered, for instance, that the water in the lake was fresh practically throughout, which fact for a natural reservoir with no outlets and subject to highly continental climatic conditions in a desert with an annual rainfall less than 200 mm., he considered a geographical paradox. The solution to this riddle lay evidently in the assumption that lake Balkhash within its present shores is a comparatively "young," recently formed lake, and that the salt deposits in the bed of the original lake became later surfaced by newly formed strata after which the lake basin got filled with water for a second time. The second riddle was the lake's extreme shallowness. This unusual phenomenon Berg solved by assuming that the lake was getting silted up by river deposits which, thanks to frequent storms on the lake, did not accumulate at river bars but spread throughout its basin. Berg also established the fact that since 1890 the level of Balkhash had been continuously rising though prior to that, from 1859, it was dropping. He also proved that the volume of water brought down to the lake by the river Ili had increased over the same period.

It is on the northern shores of this lake that the new city of Balkhash has been rapidly growing, its population exceeding now one hundred thousand, though only ten years ago the desolate shores of the lake hardly showed any signs of life except in winter. This transformation was brought about by the discovery of copper at Kounrad leading during the last decade to the transformation of the lake area into an important industrial district. Shipping has also been introduced to its waters and there are now about ten landing stages for forwarding cargo and hundreds of barges and sail, steam and motor vessels ply its stormy waters. There are no figures available as to the extent of transport facilities. Scanty references to shipping on the lake go back to 1854 when a small sailing boat the "St. Nicholas" was built by an enterprising Russian to transport military stores across the lake and up the river Ili to Iliisky Viselak, a small settlement 230 miles up the river. The vessel was built on Lake Balkhash at Bertishskaya Pristan not far from the present side of Balkhash city. The voyage across the lake and up the Ili in those days took 72 days and the return trip down river seventeen. The first 35 hp. steamer on the Balkhash was built in 1883 but the enterprise proved unprofitable and was abandoned.

THE PRE-BALKHASH COPPER SMELTING COMBINE (KOMBINAT) has been put up for the processing of Kounrad copper ores on Karaganda coal with which district the "Kombinat" is connected by rail. The main mines at Kounrad lie 18 km. to the north of the lake and are encompassed within an area of less than one sq. km. As large quantities of water are required for refining purposes the Smelting Works were put up on the shores of the lake (about 20 miles from the mines). Construction on the site began in 1932 and was accelerated during the war. At the initial stage of construction great difficulties had to be overcome. There was no railway at the time. Climatic conditions likewise aggravated matters. The plant

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yielded its first copper in 1938. By the beginning of the war its first section was operating at full capacity, and ~~the~~ with the completion of the Karaganda railway link copper ores were brought to the plant for smelting not only from the Kounrad mines but also from the Dzhezkazgan ~~area~~ area.

The final annual production target of the Pre-Balkhash Smelting Works is 100,000 tons. This smelting plant is thus considered to be greater than any other in the world. The ores of Kounrad are reported to contain also molybdenum. The "Pre-Balkhash Kombinat" consists of the smelting works, of an ore-concentration plant and of a 100,000 kw. power station. By 1950 the plant is to treble its production as against 1940. The Kombinat also administers the "socialist" experimental garden city which, though it is in the midst of a lifeless desert, has water, gas and electricity and pleasant streets with gardens and flower beds sown on soil brought to the town by rail. Irrigated state farms, about 60 miles away, supply the town with milk, vegetables and other farm produce.

Another source of supply for the population of the industrial districts of Balkhash and further to the north-west of Karaganda are the middle and lower reaches of the Ili river where the construction of an extensive irrigation system has been laid out. The Lower Ili valley is capable of producing rice and commercial crops including rubber-bearing plants. Rich harvests of sugar-beet have already been procured in this district. For sugar refining three plants have been constructed. Flour mills and distilleries are also known to be in this district.

GREATER DZHEZKAZGAN (the "Copper kettle") is the foremost copper-producing centre in the whole of the U.S.S.R. with deposits estimated at ~~about~~ 3,017,000 tons. Unlike Kounrad, copper has been mined here since the days of Jenghiz Khan. Dzhezkazgan is thus no new find of Russian Geologists who had been long aware of the presence of old copper mines the development of which in modern times had been retarded through their remote situation. The project for the construction of a copper smelting plant with a "target" capacity of 200,000 tons was first laid out in 1936. Many of the mines in this area are close to the surface and their ~~own~~ seams run to a thickness of several metres in hard strata. A feature of the mines is the small influx of water which requires less pumping. The smelting processes and refining are also considered more economical than elsewhere in view of the absence of harmful admixtures in the ores. The smelters at Dzhezkazgan are to use coal from the Baikonur coal mines with which they are connected by a branch railway. It is confidently expected that the output of the copper mines here will exceed that of the Kounrad mines.

Greater Dzhezkazgan has an area over 60 km. in diameter and includes three industrial localities:

1. The bustling industrial centre of Karaspkai, which first sprang into being before the war, has an ore-concentration factory, a smelting plant and a power station and may be regarded as the second important copper smelting centre of Kazakhstan.
2. The mining district itself where new mines are continuously being dug. Around these mines a city is under construction. Besides copper, sizeable deposits of lead, manganese, iron, magnesite, quartz and coal have been located in this area.

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3. The third section of Greater Dzhezkazgan is Kenghir, 28 km. from the mines, which also has an ore-concentration plant. Copper smelting works are under construction. The new settlement in this section is to have its own green belt and is to be planned as a model garden city.

A sidelight on copper smelting methods in Kazakhstan and the technical difficulties that had to be overcome during the initial period in the development of Kazakhstan's metallurgical industry may be found in an article devoted to the labours of Professor Vanyukov, hero of the Soviet Union and Stalin Prize winner, who had been responsible for extensive researches on the metallurgy of non-ferrous metals. According to this article Professor Vanyukov has revolutionized the methods of smelting copper ores having found an efficient way of making use of copper ore that would not yield to ordinary smelting methods. The methods previously used in the Urals and Caucasus could not be, it seems, applied to the smelting of Kazakhstan ores which "contain little sulphur and a great deal of silica." New technological processes for smelting had therefore to be devised. Professor Vanyukov solved this problem after innumerable experiments both in Kazakhstan and in his central laboratories. "The secret lay in adding a tiny quantity of certain minerals (of which manganese ore was one) to the ore to be smelted." As a result the process of smelting copper became simpler and faster and the losses of metal in the slag were cut to a fraction. It has been maintained that the application of Vanyukov's new methods have raised the figure for extracts from 90 to 99.5%."

The part played by Kazakhstan copper during the war has been of some importance and the future development of its copper mines obviously has enormous possibilities. In 1934 copper deposits in the U.S.S.R. were estimated at 19,950,000 tons and U.S.S.R.'s share in world production at 15%. The total output of copper in the Union in 1938 was 103,200 tons, a quantity now exceeded by the refineries of Kazakhstan alone (100,000 tons were refined near Lake Balkhash in 1941). According to the "Victory" Plan the target for copper output in Kazakhstan in 1950 will be 2.6 times higher than in 1941.

The following table shows the actual output of copper in the U.S.S.R. in metric tons:

1913	31,113	1931	44,335
1928	30,014	1932	44,986
1929	35,503	1933	44,295
1930	44,517	1934	53,333

Thus though during the first five year period production was raised to 40,000 tons a year and during the second to 50,000 tons, copper had still to be imported at the rate of 20,000 to 30,000 tons annually. Development of Kazakhstan copper mines should, however, do away with any further imports of foreign copper.

A FOREIGNER VISITS ALMA ATA. According to a Russian home broadcast, Mr. Coats, Secretary to the Anglo-Soviet Parliamentary Committee reached Alma Ata on the 28th September, 1946.

In an interview given to representatives of the Kazakh Press Mr. Coats stated that he had since long been interested in perusing reports in the English Press on the life of the peoples of Soviet Asia. What he saw in Kazakhstan, however, surpassed his expectations. "In Alma Ata I visited the Kazakh Academy of Sciences, the University, a middle school, a tobacco factory and other industrial plants. I enjoyed greatly the

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performance of Shakespeare's "Taming of the Shrew" in the Kazakh language, also the performance of national plays and dances at the Kazakh Theatre of Opera and Ballet. I had complete freedom to get acquainted with all that I wished to see. I never thought that culture and science could have attained such a high level in the republic. Though before the October revolution only 2% of the Kazakhs were literate, the situation has now been reversed since there are only 2% of illiterates. In my opinion no other country could have so successfully solved the problem of nationalities as it has been done in the Soviet Union."

Mr. Coats promises to write a book on his travels in the Soviet Union. It is hoped that apart from his fleeting impressions it will also contain solid factual material.

MUSK-RAT (ONDATRA) RESERVES. Musk-rats have now been introduced into Kazakhstan and are fast breeding in the vicinity of Lake Balkhash and along the lower reaches of the Ili river.

Musk-rats from America were first introduced into the Soviet Solovetsky Islands, a Soviet penal colony in the White Sea, and rapidly flourished on the shores of the many lakes of these islands.

Their introduction was so successful that the islands soon became too teeming and these fast multiplying animals began to suffer from a shortage of fodder especially during the severe winter months.

Families of musk-rats have now been settled on the Balkhash lake area where they are quickly getting acclimatized to local conditions.

The future successful breeding in the Balkhash area of these valuable fur-bearing animals seems assured and the district is rapidly becoming a veritable paradise for local hunters who now regard the delta of the Ili river as second "Klondike" promising them a large income from the musk-rat.

THE KAZAKH ASTRO-PHYSICAL OBSERVATORY. According to telegraphic information an astrophysical observatory designed by the U.S.S.R. Academy of Architecture is about to be constructed not far from Alma Ata. Situated in the mountains at a height of some 1,500 metres above sea level, this observatory will occupy an area of about ten acres and will include a large laboratory, several observation pavillions, homes for the personnel and auxiliary buildings.

The largest building in the group will be the laboratory, which is to have a large circular auditorium with a domed ceiling, libraries, studies, workshops and other premises.

The sun pavillion, where the basic astronomical instruments are to be housed, will have a sliding iron roof to permit astronomical observations in clear weather. Since the region in which the observatory is to be built is subject to earth tremors, all the buildings will be protected by antiseismic belts of brick and iron.

RESEARCH ON COSMIC DUST AND RAYS. A Tass telegram reports the return to Alma Ata of the scientist Divani, a member of the Institute of Astronomy and Physics of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences, from the glacier Tuyuk Su, where at an altitude of 2,500 metres above sea level he carried out researches on the nature of cosmic dust. "After an extremely difficult ascent, Divani spent a week melting snow and boiling the water obtained. From seventy buckets he obtained ten grams of sediment containing cosmic dust."

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The Pamir expedition for the study of cosmic rays under the leadership of Dr. Vl. Veksler was sent out in the autumn of 1945. At that time Dr. Veksler gave the following information to the press on the aims and objects of his expedition:--

"We have been sending out cosmic ray expeditions since 1936. From 1936 to 1940 inclusive we sent them to Mt. Elbrus, and in 1941 we selected the Pamirs for a research site, but the war interrupted further work. Last year we were able to resume our work. The data brought back prompted the Presidium of the Academy to decide to set up a permanent station the Pamirs for all-year observation of cosmic radiation.

"Situated at an altitude of about 4,000 metres above sea-level, the station will consist of a large laboratory building and a 30 kw. power station, which will be used to produce magnetic fields for photographing the path of cosmic particles. This year we will select a site for the station and begin designing it. It will probably be in the neighbourhood of the present base of our expedition in the Murghab district. Besides the main laboratory building, we intend to build two stations, one at an altitude of approximately 5,000 metres, probably in the region of the Ak-Bastal Pass, to measure the intensity of the radiation, and the other near a mountain lake to carry out measurements on the surface and at different depths under water.

"Our main base will be located at the Murghab Biological station of the Tajik Branch of the Academy. It may sound imposing, but actually there are only two cottages at this station which seem to be lost among the boulders. The station's staff is doing splendid work in adapting various grains and vegetables to local conditions. Fresh vegetables from the station's gardens will thus be a welcome supplement to the expedition's rations.

"To accommodate the party, the expedition is taking along two portable plywood frame houses and fifteen tents. The expedition's supplies, which include the invariable jeep, have been sent from Moscow in two freight cars. Their final destination on the railway is the town of Osh (incidentally, Osh in Tajik means "stop"). From Osh trucks will carry the party and its supplies across mountain passes and valleys to ~~Murghab~~ Murghab.

KAZAKHSTAN

(March - April 1947)

DISCOVERY OF VANADIUM DEPOSITS. The discovery of large vanadium and other valuable ore deposits reported recently in the Moscow Press has been hailed as the direct result of the intensive explorations undertaken by not less than 19 geological survey parties sent out last year in search of mineral riches. Among results attained by these expeditions reports mention surveys of the Boschekul copper-molibdenum fields (under the leadership of Borukov, member of the Kazakh Academy), where a new Kombinat is now planning to start operations, and of high-quality brown coal deposits in Eastern Kazakhstan. The most interesting finds were, however, made by an expedition in search of vanadium-bearing strata led by the petrographer Professor Sokolov who undertook the exploration of an area stretching hundreds of kilometres north, from the Kara Tau Mountains to Ishim. Press reports claim that Sokolov and his party succeeded in locating here many traces of this hardest mineral known to mankind.

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According to Sokolov the discovered deposits may prove to be the largest in the Union. Preparations for their industrial exploitation are now under way. The recent finds of vanadium-bearing ores are not the only evidence of the presence of vanadium in Russian Central Asia. Already in 1913 copper-ore deposits were actually worked in the Skobelev district of the Ferghana region which contained, apart from copper, uranium, vanadium and radium. It was known at the time that the radium content of these ores was considerable, each one hundred tons of ore yielding one gram of radium. For refining purposes the ore from the Ferghana mines had to be sent to St. Petersburg.

The Pamir-Tajik Expedition of 1933 found traces of vanadium, uranium and radium near the discarded Agalyk mines which are most favourably situated for exploitation as they are only 16 km. south of Samarkand, being connected with the city by an excellent chaussee. In that year geologists working in this area discovered, however, only one "mineralogical point," disclosing the presence of vanadium. Somewhat later an ore-bearing zone was traced and explored to the extent of 200 metres. Laboratory tests of the ores from these mines yielded an appreciable quantity of both vanadium and uranium.

Apart from the Agalyk mines several other "points" were discovered at the same time in the southern part of the Ferghana valley showing traces of vanadium, this presumably in addition to the Tuya Mayun field in the Ferghana valley which a contributor to the Soviet Encyclopedia in 1927 described as one of the few sources of vanadium in the USSR.

A three-column illustrated article describing in popular language the recent discovery of vanadium ores by the geologist N. Kozlov was published in May last year in the Moscow monthly *Ogonyok*. It seems that while doing field survey work Kozlov came across a mineral the properties of which he was unable to determine. On his return to Alma Ata he ~~showed~~ showed his find to the geologist Sokolov who after chemically analysing Kozlov's specimen was still unable to define its nature. The minute specks which defied analysis were subsequently sent to the Institute of Astronomy and Physics where spectral analysis could be applied further, and they turned out to be vanadium. As a result the search was on. A field expedition was urgently sent out which confirmed the most optimistic expectations of Soviet geologists. Unfortunately, the deposits were found to be in a waterless desert at a distance of one hundred kilometres from the nearest railway, so that their exploitation would have presented enormous difficulties and would moreover have required time while war demands for vanadium could wait.

Since these preliminary finds had established that vanadium ores were to be found in strata of the lower palaeozoic system Sokolov assisted by Satpaev, President of the Kazakh Academy of Sciences, decided to resume his preliminary searches of the probable location of vanadium deposits theoretically, without the aid of field surveys. The two scientists accordingly concentrated their studies on the examination of geological and geo-structural maps and of all available scientific monographs on the geology of Russian Central Asia using for their researches the rich collection of mineral specimens in possession of the Academy. This work eventually enabled them to select on the map of Kazakhstan a small area within which they expected that vanadium ores could be found. An expedition subsequently sent out to this precise locality proved the correctness of Sokolov's anticipations and has now led to the discovery of vanadium deposits located only at a distance of two kilometres from the railway line in an area with an abundant supply of water. The exact location of this new field has, so far, not been disclosed.

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MORE IRON DEPOSITS IN KAZAKHSTAN. Outcrops of iron ore along the Ayat River in Kazakhstan were discovered last year by prospectors sent out by the Urals Geological Trust of the Soviet Ministry of the Iron and Steel Industry. It had long been known that there were iron deposits in this area, and it has now been established that these deposits are several hundred square miles in extent, and 10 to 16 feet thick.

The southern fringe of the field is conveniently near the Kartaly-Akmolinsk railway. The iron ore can thus be easily carried to plants in the Southern Urals, Siberia and Kazakhstan.

DELAYS IN GRAIN AND COAL DELIVERIES. The reasons for the concentrated attention given by the Russian Press and the numerous write-ups on delays in grain deliveries from Kazakhstan find a ready explanation in the report published on January 21st by the State Planning Commission which discloses the magnitude of the drought suffered in 1946 by a considerable part of the European territory of the USSR. In the words of the report:

"Agriculture was seriously influenced by the unfavourable meteorological conditions of 1946 which took the form of a grave drought over a considerable part of the European territory of the USSR.

"Beginning in early spring (the end of March) in Moldavia, the drought swiftly spread to the south-western regions of the Ukraine and subsequently embraced all the provinces of the Central Black zone including the northern provinces of the Ukraine. As from the middle of May approximately the drought spread to regions on the right bank of the Lower Volga.

"Such a drought had not occurred on Soviet territory in the last 50 years. The territory which suffered in 1946 was larger than in 1921 and nearly as large as in 1891. Despite this, the gross harvest in 1926 was incomparably greater than in 1921, which was only due to the socialist organization of production, with tractor stations and collectivization created during the Five-Year Plans.

"In the regions which did not suffer from the drought, especially Western Siberia and Kazakhstan, crop production in 1946 increased considerably as compared with 1945. The harvest of seed crops in these two areas increased 1 1/2 times as compared to 1945 and 2.3 times in the Altai krai. Cotton production in the USSR increased by 34 per cent on 1945.

"However owing to the serious drought in many oblasts, the production of seed crops, sunflower and sugar-beet was considerably lower as a whole, in 1946 than in 1945. The Government had taken measures to render assistance to the suffering areas by sending food, seeds and fodder, and by taking steps to economize food."

In the light of the above information it is only natural that the drive for the speedy harvesting of grain in Kazakhstan, a region which apparently had not suffered from drought conditions and yielded excellent crops, should have assumed such formidable proportions and such actuality. Early in the autumn deliveries from Kazakhstan were patchy and irregular as at that time evidently not all of the 6,724 kolkhoz farms of this republic had been warned of the serious consequences to Soviet economy of further delays in speedily surrendering their surplus grain for transporting to other areas. In the Dzhamil district deliveries were actually 35 days

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ahead of the prescribed time-table and exceeded the targets set (113%); in some areas of the Alma-Ata District Kolkhoz farms were also 18 days ahead with their deliveries, and targets had been overfulfilled (120%). Successful deliveries in these few localities of the republic were, however, of no great importance to Kazakhstan's deliveries as a whole as the chief grain-producing districts are undoubtedly the Northern and Eastern districts which were lagging behind. Overall deliveries to the State from Kazakhstan as a whole, as reported on September 20th, had not reached 51% of the prescribed targets as fully three quarters of the total of Kazakhstan deliveries depended upon these two essentially grain-producing areas.

In explaining these delays the Central authorities of Kazakhstan, who had been evidently themselves chiefly responsible for the partial breakdown in deliveries, attributed them to failure on the part of local authorities to take into consideration the anticipated bad autumn weather and the lateness of the harvest. Though having been warned of the possible advent of these conditions, the local authorities evidently did very little to organize the drying of grain or to utilize covered storage facilities albeit extensive preparations had been made on paper, with blue prints and time-tables for deliveries. To some Russian observers it remains unaccountable why, even where storage facilities were available, they were either not fully utilized or in some cases remained totally unused (110 drying plants in Eastern Kazakhstan and 114 in the Pavlograd area) leading to a dangerous accumulation of large quantities of damp grain.

For these irregularities in the harvesting campaign the local authorities are not so much to blame as the bureaucratic methods of control exercised by the Central authorities. The Northern Kazakhstan Regional Committee of the Communist Party had duly passed numerous resolutions demanding the speed-up in the tempo of grain deliveries which were but partially implemented. The Kazakhstan Central Committee of the Communist Party and the Kazakh Cabinet of Ministers held joint sittings during the harvesting campaign every Friday and despatched to grain-producing districts frequent telegraphic instructions. However they hardly took any steps to ascertain that these instructions were carried out by the local authorities on the spot. One Press reviewer comes to the unexpected general conclusion that control had at that time slipped out of the hands of the central directing authorities whereas the authorities on the spot were reluctant to react positively to the flood of paper instructions from the centre. It is highly significant that the central authorities are now trying to pass on the responsibility to subordinate organs in the interior and to lay blame at the door of local administrators accusing them of inefficiency and demanding the raising in the future of their standards of work. The bureaucratic attitude of some of the bosses, nevertheless, had also come in for acute criticism, this attitude being exemplified by the behaviour of the Director of the North Kazakhstan Grain Trust who went on leave at the height of the harvesting campaign.

Early in the autumn, the Northern regions of Kazakhstan were much behind with their grain deliveries which the threat of famine in parts of European Russia made the more anxious, Kazakhstan being the largest grain-producing area in the USSR in which Kolkhoz and Sovkhoz farmers cultivate nearly five million hectares of land of which nearly four million are under grain.

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Early reports on grain deliveries from Kazakhstan left the impression that controls over the procurement of grain last season had markedly weakened and that labour discipline had also become ~~xxx~~ undermined. Threshing combines and other mechanical means for harvesting the crop were but poorly utilized. As an instance a correspondent cites that one combine in five days threshed only 130 centners of grain and that at the height of the season in one particular area work in the fields was reduced to five hours per day. In many cases threshing machinery remained idle as there were no mechanics or movable workshops to attend to their repairs. It was also significantly admitted that chairmen of certain Kolkhozi were holding back grain for their own needs.

Complaints were recently registered of numerous delays in the loading of coal from Karaganda mines on the working of which depend not only the railways and power stations of Kazakhstan but industrial enterprises in the Urals and Siberia.

Between November 14th and 18th, 210 freight cars remained unloaded. During the next few days their number was 97. These delays were evidently due not only to poor organization of coal-loading at the Karaganda mines but to slackness of the part of the railway administration which occasionally was unable to provide the required number of freight cars to the coal mines, as, for instance, on November 20th when not less than 430 coal freight cars were short-delivered. Karaganda mines also complained that empty cars for loading coal were often brought to the Karaganda terminus during the second half of the day which considerably delayed loading and that the movement of coal trains was frequently delayed on outward journeys.

As in the case of grain deliveries local party committees are blamed for issuing sheaves of useless circulars instead of taking practical steps to eliminate causes for delays in loading cars and their speedy despatch to destinations.

A RECORD RICE CROP. "I live in Kazakhstan on the Kzyl-Tu collective farm in Kzyl-Orda region, where our chief crop is rice. I have continually tried to raise the rice yield, and I have succeeded. Last year I harvested 156.5 centners per hectare.

"There are two things which helped me raise a record rice crop. The first was the continuous assistance of science. The second was planned work.

"In spring, summer and autumn we all work in the fields, but in winter we have a lot of spare time, and we spend it in study. Our Kolkhoz runs courses on scientific farming conducted by skilled agronomist, and classes are held twice a week all through the winter. We study literature on farming methods, we read about various scientific developments in our field of work, and discuss how these can be applied.

"The works of the famous agricultural scientist, T.D. Lysenko, left a particularly deep impression on me. I had already noticed that the better the seed used, the better the crop, but after reading Lysenko's works I began to pay even more attention to this principle. The members of my farm team and I selected the largest grains from amongst the high-grade seed used for sowing.

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"Lysenko teaches that a favourable environment will lead to an improvement in the quality and quantity of the crops. I rigidly observed all scientific requirements, such as density of sowing, thorough cultivation, application of fertilizers, sub-feeding and flooding of fields.

"Planning of work was the second factor which helped me to raise big crops. Each year the board of our Kolkhoz draws up a general plan which includes the definite dates by which certain farm work must be done, and says how this is to be successfully accomplished. Each field team makes its own plan accordingly.

"The work we have accomplished definitely proves the success of these methods as I was able to increase the crop last year from 142 centners per hectare in 1940 to 156.5 centners.

"For sub-feeding we used organic fertilizers to which we added a small quantity of chemical fertilizers. And we obtained the best results by applying this mixture in small quantities at regular intervals.

"On my experimental plot of 30 square metres I planted two years ago 150 large grains from which I have reaped a kilo of seed. This seed was sown this spring, and from it I calculated I should get one and a half centners of high quality seed. Next year I shall sow the entire plantation with this seed.

"The harvest depends also on the amount of seed sown. My team sows 180 kilograms per hectare, 30 kilos more than is usually sown under local conditions.

"I would like to state in conclusion that I could not have been successful had the Soviet Government not provided irrigation facilities in our locality. The Nevo-Gitli Canal, constructed before the war, supplies our farm with sufficient water. During the war we began to build the Kzyl Orda reinforced concrete dam on the Syr Darya River. This new project will help to irrigate over 100,000 hectares of land in the Kzyl Orda region which are to be planted with rice."

KAZAKHSTAN

(May - June 1947)

PARTY POLITICS AND LITERATURE. The Central Committee of the Kazakh Communist Party recently scathingly rebuked in a long "inspired" resolution the Directors of the Institute of Literature and Language of the newly full-fledged Kazakh Academy of Sciences. The resolution sweepingly asserted, among other things, that the current work of the Institute was being carried out in a most unsatisfactory way, that its members were hopelessly lagging behind in the execution of their duties and their approved plans of work and were quite unable to cope with the many urgent tasks of scientific research in the domain of Kazakh language and literature.

The leaders of the Institute, it was held, had totally failed to take proper notice of previous directives of the Central Committee of the Party and of the specific directives issued for the revision of the "History of the Kazakh SSR," the first edition of which had been unequivocally condemned.

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The ~~invest~~ invective against the Directors of the Institute accuses them of conducting scientific researches and of having allowed theses to be presented on matters wholly detached from progressive trends in the political and cultural life of the Kazakh people and relating mostly to the past history of Kazakhstan but completely ignoring themes from modern post-October history. Researches conducted by members of the Institute moreover contained gross methodological and political transgressions in interpreting the past and reflected national aberrations obviously dangerous to the strengthening of friendly inter-Union relations.

The Institute of Literature and Language, though it had collated extensive data on the literary heritage of the Kazakh people and on the origin and history of Kazakh language and literature, failed to apply to their interpretation the Marxist materialistic conception of dialectical development or to disclose the social foundations of literature, the influence of other literatures of the peoples of the USSR, and primarily of Russian literature on the development of Kazakh thought.

The first volume of the "History of Kazakh Literature" which had been submitted to the Committee in manuscript and other works of Kazakh linguists and historians of literature contained harmful tendencies in interpreting literary facts in an abstract way detached from the material basis of society and neglecting or minimizing all traces of a class differentiation and struggle in the Kazakh aul while eulogizing the glory of past feudal relations. As a result even such obnoxious feudal lords as Kengerbai, Karamende and Shorman had been depicted as staunch defenders of the people and as true heroes and sages though in fact they were nothing but wanton's trangers of the freedom of the masses.

In popular text-books used in middle schools Kazakh reactionary poets and writers of the 19th and 20th centuries were favourably estimated as their writings were analysed with no proper understanding of the omnipresent class struggle. Reactionary, feudal, bourgeois and nationalist tendencies apparent in the works of these writers were neither adequately stressed nor condemned. Writings of decadent Kazakh poets and even of individuals who had actively participated in the counter-revolutionary Alash Orda movement were in consequence favourably represented though their names should have been totally expurgated.

The authors of the resolution further assert that there were also many serious political transgressions and errors in researches conducted by the Institute on the modern literary forms of the Kazakh language which, it should never be forgotten, had in fact come into being only after the Great October revolution and was now being enriched in consequence of the growth of industries, agriculture and of the raising of the general cultural standard of the Kazakhs.

Linguists of the Institute for instance, stubbornly resisted the introduction into the modern Kazakh language of words of international and all-Union usage and significance. As a result the adaptation into the Kazakh language of many social and economic terms was carried out with a gross perversion and simplification of their actual meaning.

The resolution further maintains that members of the Institute displayed no traces of a critical appreciation of the cultural and linguistic inheritance of the Kazakh people and as most of their researches were apolitical and devoid of a sound ideological basis.

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Leaders of the Institute moreover violated fundamental Bolshevik principles in their careless selection of scientific workers which had led to a number of hostile elements and quasi-scientific research associates having penetrated the ranks of its members.

In the conduct of its researches the institute had failed to create conditions for the encouragement of critical, truly Bolshevik discussions and of self-criticism for which partly to blame were the party "cells" that existed with the institute.

In its concluding paragraphs the resolution prescribes to the Presidium of the Academy a firm stand in dealing with these gross perversions in the work of the Institute and to arrange its future activities in line with principles forcibly outlined by Comrade Zhdanov in his historical 1946 speech on literature. The resolution demands that future researches within the Institute are devoted to an examination of forward progressive tendencies in Kazakh literature which are to be interpreted from the Marxist point of view. Writers among the Kazakhs representing progressive tendencies were to be preferably studied as they were cementing friendship among the Kazakhs and the other nationalities comprising the USSR.

The primary task of the Institute, according to the resolution, was to secure the communist education of the masses, and to achieve this the Institute had to eliminate from its researches all harmful tendencies which tended to revive a narrow parochial nationalist outlook.

In practice the resolution instructs comrade Sembaev, Minister of Education of the Kazakh republic, to confirm the future only such research programmes which preclude the possibility of a repetition of the gross ideological errors in the work of the Institute. He was also instructed to secure the re-writing of school programmes and of all textbooks on literature before the commencement of the next school term in conformity with the directives of the resolution.

NEW TOWNS IN KAZAKHSTAN. A number of new towns and workers' settlements have appeared on the map of Kazakhstan during the past eight years to show that the industrial development of the republic has been fairly rapid.

Temir-Tau is Kazakhstan's youngest town which grew out of a small settlement in the Karaganda steppes thanks to its industrial importance in iron and steel during the war.

Lenger is not much older. It is a mining town in the vicinity of rich coal deposits.

The Ust-Kamenogorsk hydro-electric station being built on the confluence of two rivers, the Ablakетка and the Irtysh, has caused the foundation and growth of the town of Ablakетка with electric rapidity. This is going to be the source of power to the Altai industry.

Ubaremet was founded in 1938, and today this mining ore centre has grown into a flourishing industrial town.

Among the worker's settlements Koshkar is the youngest and the most important among the oil settlements of Kazakhstan.

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NEWS ON RURAL ECONOMY. Great increases in the crop area are planned for the near future in the Eastern Regions of the USSR. In Kazakhstan over a million acres will be added this year to the area sown with spring crops. Last year Kazakhstan brought two and a half million acres of new land under cultivation.

Spring sowing in Southern Kazakhstan has been going on in full vigour. By March more than 1,000 hectares had already been sown. Sugar-beet, kok-sagyz and tobacco have been sown among other crops.

Following the example of Southern Kazakhstan, Dzhambul and Kzyl-Orda districts have accelerated their tempo of sowing, particularly of sugar-beet.

Kazakhstan is the land of kok-sagyz, the valuable plant, kindred to rubber. Last year a scientific expedition worked in the mountain districts of Alma-Ata, researching wild kok-sagyz. Considerable material has been collected bearing upon the theoretical and practical problems of kok-sagyz cultivation.

50 new mechanized and 15 standard butter and fact factories will be opened this year in the larger cattle-rearing districts of Kazakhstan. Some of them will be situated far inland, hundreds of kilometres away from any railway station. The Ak-su factory, for instance, will serve a large number of dairies situated on the slopes of the Tarbagatai.

During the current five-year plan the republic will be furnished with 200 mechanized centres for processing milk.

DISCOVERY OF COKING COAL DEPOSITS. It is widely known that not all Karaganda coal can be used for coking purposes. A search for coal deposits suitable for use in the Kazakh metallurgical enterprises has therefore been going on for some time. As a result of recent surveys by Kazakh geologists small beds of coking coal were discovered in 1944-45 in the southern part of the Karaganda basin not far from the railway station of Karagay. In 1946 another seam was found on the right bank of the river Churubai Nura near village Dubinka. Further areas of coking coals were also found later to the north of the Churubai Nura near Karadjar and Shashansk and along the Nura.

In the opinion of Professor Gapeev (Pravda 30-3-47) the Churubai Nura region is the largest field of coking coal in the east of the Soviet Union and has reserves amounting to milliards of tons and their development should be of the greatest importance to Temir Tau metallurgical industries on the Nura river. Apart from this local importance their exploitation should accelerate the working of metallurgical bases in the Urals which are to be considerably developed in the next five years.

KAZAKHSTAN

(April - June 1948)

AFTER 30 YEARS OF SOVIET RULE. Shortly after the 30th anniversary of the October Revolution some papers burst into a chorus of praise, as it were, for the all around progress claimed to have been made during this period by Kazakhstan in all sphere of life. The following is a gist of a typical outburst on the subject:--

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During the 30 years of Soviet power in Kazakhstan the face of the country has changed. Hundreds of mills and factories on the most up-to-date technological lines, scores of giant metallurgical, chemical, oil-refining, coal producing, machine-building and food-producing works have sprung up, and big industrial centres have risen all over Kazakhstan in Karaganda, Balkhash, Dzhezkazgan, Temir, Tau, Leninogorsk, Ust-Kamenogorsk, Aktyubinsk etc. Through the steppes of Kazakhstan where formerly the only means of transport was the camel, railway trains and motor cars may today be seen dashing at break-neck speed. Such big railway trunk lines as the Turksib, Akmolinsk-Karatau-Karaganda Balkhash etc., have been constructed. The labourers of Kazakhstan are building further railways in accordance with the post-war Five-Year Plan. These lines will link Mointy-Chu, Akmolinsk, Pavlodar, Senipalatinsk, Malinovo Ozero. Sixteen thousand kilometres of airways, thirty eight thousand kilometres of telegraph and telephone lines, hundreds of telegraph and radio stations are to be found in Kazakhstan today where formerly the only means of communication was uzniak, i.e. the oral transmission of news. The country has turned from a backward nomadic land of ancient times into a flourishing industrial and agricultural republic of the Soviet Union.

In agriculture, where there were formerly only one plough for five and one rake for 4 families, one sowing machine for 12 hundred farms and one reaping machine for 15 households, as a result of the successful working of collectivization, the republic has been converted into a country of highly developed mechanised agriculture. There are now more than six thousand seven hundred kolkhozes, 254 sovkhoses, 363 machine and tractor stations. Tens of thousands of tractors and 127 combines are at work on kolkhoz and sovkhos fields. Thanks to the mechanisation of agriculture, the Kazakh people have been able to attack deserts and semi-deserts on a broader organized front. New and ever new means of sustenance are being wrested from nature: tractors are upturning the virgin soil of the "Hungry Steppe". Magnificent irrigation canals have been constructed giving the much needed moisture to the thirsty land. Not only corn but sugar-beet, cotton, hemp, the sun-flower, tobacco and rubber-bearing plants are now cultivated in the fields of Kazakhstan.

In 1946 the republic gave to the country twelve million poods of corn over and above the quota and some kolkhozes increased their head of cattle by seven hundred thousand.

On October 26, 1947, Kazakhstan fulfilled the plan of corn delivery, giving to the country 165 million poods more than in the preceding year and 71,661,000 poods more than in 1946.

Kazakhstan is a land of highly developed stock-breeding. During the last 12 years the number of heads of cattle has increased by six and a half times, the number of sheep increasing ninefold. The total number of cattle on collective farms raised during 1947 was 2,476 thousand heads, in other words, three and a half times as much as in the preceding year. It is noteworthy that there is a regular competition among stock-breeders for fulfilling their obligations. With every year that passes the Kazakh collective farms give to the country animal products in increasing quantities. In 1947 the plan for producing and preparing butter was fulfilled ahead of schedule and the quantity turned out was two thousand eight hundred tons, or more than in the corresponding period of 1946 2,475 tons more than in 1946, the pre-war year.

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There has been a great agricultural revolution in Kazakhstan, the illiteracy of the masses has disappeared and universal primary education has been introduced in villages and towns and a seven-year course in cities and workers' settlements. Today thousands of schools, several thousands being middle schools and 23 higher technical institutions are functioning in the state. The Kazakhs have critically created their own literature and art. There are among them writers, artists and scientists. There is now an academy in the republic which is a centre of science. To the Kazakh Academy of Sciences are affiliated scores of scientific institutions with about 1500 scientific workers.

During the 30 years of Soviet rule Kazakhstan has made great strides in the economic and cultural sphere and it has not only overtaken but left behind many countries of the North and West.

THE UST-KAMENOGORSK HYDRO-ELECTRIC STATION. Realising the need for extending their power resources as a means of developing all branches of the national economy, the authorities of the Kazakh republic made provision under the new Five-Year Plan for an increase of about 100,000 kilowatts of power in the republic. In view of the importance of tapping the natural wealth of such a big industrial region as the Altai an increase in the power resources of the region is of indispensable. In this connection it is estimated that thousands of kilowatts of electric power are further needed to fully develop this rich area. The Ust-Kamenogorsk hydro-electric station on the river Irtysh will more than fulfill the power requirements of Altai as well as of the whole republic. When completed it will be the most powerful station in the republic and one of the largest hydro-electric stations of the Soviet Union. It is claimed that "many signal achievements of Soviet science and technique" are being utilised in the construction of this station.

It is reported that construction work is proceeding apace. One of the remarkable achievements of this year is said to be the commencement of concrete work on the dam. The builders are said to be inspired with the idea of carrying out the task set by the pyatiletka in a thorough and systematic manner. Their object is to execute the work ahead of schedule, and with this aim in view they are engaged in the "socialist competition" movement. In the current year the construction work on the Irtysh has been almost doubled as compared with last year's. It is said that the "Kazgidroenergostroi Trust" which is responsible for constructing the Ust-Kamenogorsk hydro-electric station has all means at its disposal for increasing the tempo and extending the scope of the work. But it has not yet achieved this objective. The construction of the power station is said to be dragging on, and the programme for the first quarter has not been carried out by a wide margin. Lack of planning, absence of a precise time-table are reported to be the chief defects and difficulties of the construction work. The daily charts of construction work are prepared mechanically. The management of the Trust is held responsible for the low standard of organisational and technical guidance in construction work. The absence of firm and purposeful guidance is responsible for the fact that labour expended on construction works does not yield, in many cases, the expected result. It is complained that since the plans and the technical demands are not carried out and not properly the cost of repairs on the accomplished work will be very high for the State: and as a result of the bad organisation of work the builders remain idle. The organisers of the Trust are accused of not exercising control in the matter of using mechanical

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devices and of not taking proper measures for putting a stop to enforced idleness on the part of the workers. The result is that output has been reduced by 50%. It is alleged that many valuable mechanical devices are not used at all. Apart from this lack of planning, poor organization of work and imperfect utilisation of mechanical devices the Trust is also blamed for extravagance in using the resources placed at its disposal by the state. The expenditure incurred in the construction work is said to be rising from month to month. The authorities of the Trust are alleged to be reckless in the matter of spending. When new industries started a drive for economy their patriotic initiative was not supported by the Trust.

The Party also comes in for its share of criticism for not properly organising the construction work. It is, however, conceded that lately the party has tightened control over the economic activities of the administration but in this the Party organisation is reported to have gone to extremes. It is said to be guilty of often arrogating to itself functions which are not its own.

From the comments on and criticisms of the management it would appear that the work of construction of the Ust-Kamenogorsk hydro-electric power station, so vital for the national economy of Kazakhstan, is not very satisfactory.

THE 1947 HARVEST. Just on the eve of the 30th anniversary of the October Revolution, the regional press boosted up agricultural achievements in the Republic. It was asserted that the State plan on corn storage was fulfilled ahead of schedule, the country yielding 16.5 million poods more than in the previous year.

It was claimed by Zabezhansky, an official of the Agricultural Department, that the harvest of corn, commercial and other crops was very high, scores of raions raising 100 and more poods of corn from one hectare. Some of the farms which had undertaken to raise 170 poods of summer wheat from one hectare actually raised 250 poods.

The advanced oblasts, raions, kolkhozes and sovkhoses are said to have fulfilled Stalin's instructions and their own obligations, thus achieving great success. The kolkhozes and sovkhoses of the Dzhambul oblast delivered before time 517,000 poods of corn over and above the set quota. The collective and state farms of the southern districts of Kazakhstan also delivered 352,000 poods of corn over and above the set quota, and quite a number of other oblasts including Akmolinsk, Aktyubinsk and the western districts distinguished themselves by over-fulfilling the plan. But in spite of these positive achievements, it was admitted that many backward farms, oblasts and raions did not fulfill their obligations to the state. The kolkhozes of the Kokchetav oblast had, on September 15, 1947, fulfilled only 21.6% of the plan and those of Northern Kazakhstan to the extent of 24 percent. The causes of this backwardness were attributed to: (i) unsatisfactory leadership of Party and Soviet Organisations, (ii) drift of out-power, (iii) sense of irresponsibility, etc.

Another strong factor impeding the harvesting of corn was the inadequate utilization and the low productivity of combines and simple machines.

Another high official Grigori Lipodot was constrained to admit that the harvesting operations in the district were far from being such as were desired by the Party and the Government. For instance the moving of corn started 5-10 days later than in the preceding year and many combines could not successfully cope with the work assigned to them.

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This official made a number of practical suggestions based on his own experience for improving the harvest. All this shows that in spite of the loud claims of positive achievements, the conditions were not as perfect as they were made out to be.

NEW IRRIGATION CANALS. According to reports recently published in the press, work was in full swing for expanding and improving the irrigation network in some parts of Kazakhstan. The over-all target was to construct and repair 160 irrigation works and 1123 control posts which will extend the area under irrigation by 14,000 hectares. A big new construction work is envisaged for the 28 Guards, Burlyu-Tyube and Taldy Kurgan districts. The irrigation facilities in the Kopal, Sarkand, Aksu and Karatal sub-divisions will be considerably extended and improved. More than 5,800 roubles will be spent on the scheme. The construction of the Novo-Antonov headwaters begun last year has been completed and this will ensure the supply of irrigation water to 5,000 hectares of land.

NON-FERROUS METALLURGY. It is reported that the workers, technicians and personnel engaged in the non-ferrous metallurgical industry in Kazakhstan has been thrown into a white heat of enthusiasm and energy by the appeal issued by the Ust-Kamenogorsk Zinc Works to raise more and more non-ferrous metals and they have undertaken to fulfill the programme for the 3rd year of the post-war 5-Year Plan ahead of schedule by November 7, 1948. All branches of the industry including copper-smelting and lead works, ore-enriching plants, copper and lead and zinc mines have responded warmly to the appeal and it is said that the month of April marked a considerable rise in the extraction and processing of non-ferrous metals. Since then most of the industries engaged in non-ferrous metallurgy are reported to be overfulfilling the target set by the state.

The self-imposed obligations of the Ust-Kamenogorsk Zinc Works deserve special mention. They have undertaken to increase the extraction of metal from ore concentrates by 25% over and above the task set for them and to increase the output of zinc by 15% above the programme. They have taken upon themselves the obligation of fulfilling the plan ahead of schedule both as regards the quality and quantity of zinc raised and processed.

It is admitted that the ore-enriching plants and metallurgical works have not yet been able successfully to combat the wastage incident to the process of extraction. On the other hand, at least in one instance, there has been, of late, a deterioration in the process of extraction. For example, in the Karsakpai Copper Smelting Works the ore-enriching plant was until recently famous throughout the Soviet Union for the maximum amount of copper extracted and the minimum amount of metal wasted. Karsakpai concentrate was of a very high quality with a large copper content. But now it is no more as good and rich as before. The reason for this deterioration is attributed to faulty supervision, the unsystematic handling of technical processes and to the lack of "iron discipline."

KARATAU PHOSPHORITE DEPOSITS. About 100 scientific papers are scheduled to be published by the Academy of Sciences of Kazakhstan this year. Of particular interest is a collection of articles edited by Academician Satpayev on "Karatau phosphorites," summing up researches conducted by local geologists during a number of years.

The large phosphorite deposits discovered in the Karatau mountains extend for 70 miles and in some places are 20 miles in width. The exploitation of this deposit opens brilliant prospects for this fertiliser industry in supplying cotton plantations in Central Asia.

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NEW COAL MINES. Exploitation of the very rich coal deposits of Ekibastuz near Pavlodar in Kazakhstan will start this year. The South Siberian Trunk line, which is under construction, will link the new coalfield with important industrial regions, such as the Kuzbas and the Urals.

PROSPECTING IN KAZAKHSTAN. This summer the Kazakh Academy of Sciences will fit out 53 prospecting parties to various districts of Kazakhstan. In order to erase "white spots" from the soil map of Kazakhstan Republic and expedition of the Soil Institute, exploring deserts and highlands, will cover a distance equal to that between Alma Ata and Berlin.

ALMA-ATA HYDRO-ELECTRIC STATION. Another new hydro-electric station recently completed in the foothills of the Zaili Ala-Tau Mountains not far from Alma-Ata, capital of Kazakhstan, is supplying as much electricity to industry and the population as all of Kazakhstan's power plants did 20 years ago.

The new station is known as Alma-Ata Hydro-Electric Station No. 8 and its launching marks the completion of the first section of a chain of plants being built on the Bolshaya Alma-Antinka River.

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Embezzlements, thefts, robberies, armed and unarmed, of private and socialized property were in 1947 either on the increase or deliberately brought to the notice of the public by means of a resolute anti-crime publicity campaign and of a punitive drive started simultaneously in the Soviet Republics of Central Asia. The campaign, aiming at the eradication of criminal activities, included the publication of numerous press reports giving instances of criminal cases and of the punishment meted out which in their drastic severity remind us of punishments inflicted for minor crimes in Western Europe in the middle of the 19th century. Among these cases should be distinguished crimes against the private property of individual Soviet citizens and against the property holdings of kolkhoz and sovkhos farms and estates and generally the "socialized" sector of the Soviet economic system which were punishable to a heavier degree. For breaking into a kolkhoz godown two individuals were recently given fourteen and sixteen years respectively, while their passive accomplice got three years for not reporting the intended theft to the militia (Uzbekistan). Among the many instances of kolkhoz malpractices involving severe punishment a case in Turkmenia was brought to the notice of public in which the Chairman of a kolkhoz in collusion with his direct subordinates, took delivery of twenty kilos of honey from kolkhoz farmers paying them at the nominal rate of ten roubles per kilo from ~~mess~~ funds collected among his accomplices and later resold the illegally acquired honey in the black market, at 85 roubles per kilo appropriating the difference to himself. A kolkhoz accountant who had stolen 35 kilos of wheat and resold it for 700 roubles was sentenced to six years in detention in a labor reformatory camp (Turkmenistan). In Kirghizia the theft of six kilos of wheat was punished by six years of detention, of ten kilos of beet by five years and of thirteen kilos of unripened barley by seven years. Severe measures were recently taken by the Military Prosecutor's office of the Ashkhabad railway to stamp out theft from railway premises and the railway zone. For instance several persons, responsible for breaking into a goods waggon and lifting 46 kilos of green brick tea, were sentenced to seven years and a Turkoman named Tadiyev, who specialized in thefts in passenger coaches and who in one case had inflicted knife wounds on a fellow passenger, got an eleven years detention. For the theft of a sack of macaroni a man was recently sentenced by the same court to seven years detention and an engine driver with his stoker assistant to five years for accepting a bribe from a ticketless woman passenger by providing her on his engine with a seat and then robbing her of two pairs of galoshes and two cheap shawls. The theft of 19 kilos of coal from a railway yard was also punished with seven years detention.

Severe punishments were meted out to a number of shop and restaurant managers and assistants for various fraudulent practices against the consumers. In Uzbekistan a bakery manager whose weights had been fraudulently manipulated to a difference of forty grammes was awarded three years. A street vendor who likewise short weighted his customers got five years and a cook three years for not providing full rations to members of his mess. A kolkhoz worker in charge of a kolkhoz store was recently sentenced to five years hard labor for overcharging his customers, while at Chardzhou a shop manager who had systematically ~~systematically~~ defrauded his employers of 47,330 roubles was awarded twenty years. Among miscellaneous cases may be cited the theft of 53 meters of cotton textiles from a mill

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with a sentence of ten years and the theft of one blanket from a tuberculosis dispensary followed by an award of seven years (Turkmenia). A post office sorter in Kirghizia got seven years for misappropriating 725 copies of newspapers and a dishonest citizen got eight years for digging up and stealing 109 potato tubers from a fraudulent conversion of substantial amounts of money (6000 to 8000 rubles), a frequent practice among many officials. There was a more serious case in which an official responsible for placing an order for wine worth one million rubles knowingly took delivery of a consignment of inferior quality which resulted in a loss to his organization of one hundred thousand rubles. The perpetrator of this fraud was said to be at large. Meanwhile, investigation had disclosed that the agent who was entrusted with the wine order had not only been prosecuted but was rewarded with a premium of twenty thousand rubles for promptly and efficiently executing the order (Turkmenia). Another case on record relates to short deliveries of goods in transit across the Amu Darya at Kerki. Shortages in weight in this case were invariably registered as losses in transit and caused considerable damage to the transport organization involved.

Regional papers carried last autumn many articles emphasizing the necessity of enforcing drastic measures for the safeguarding of public and private property. The "Turkmenakaya Iskra" for instance, stressed that thefts and robberies in the Union were a legacy and survival of the corrupt capitalist system and as such were to be regarded as abject crimes to be drastically dealt with. This newspaper considered that offences against property were prevalent because of defective security measures, an inadequate control organization and a faulty and irresponsible selection of personnel entrusted with the custody of public property or, in other words, because security measures were so imperfect as to create conditions under which the weaker type of Soviet citizens was tempted and induced to thieve and to defraud. Soviet Kirghizia, writing on the same lines, contended that as all Union citizens had equal and ample opportunities to work honestly for the benefit of their country, thefts, robberies and torts against property were repugnant to a classless society and constituted a kind of malaise which must be stamped out by all means at the disposal of the State. In explaining the new laws aimed at the protection of private and public property this newspaper contended that the unification of laws dealing with offences against property was obviously quite necessary as there were in the republics many discrepancies in degrees of punishment for the same type of offence. In Azerbaijan, for instance, common theft was punishable by five years detention in labor reformatory camps in the RSFSR by eight years but in Kirghizia only by one which discrepancies obviously called for revision. Under the new laws common theft is punishable by five to six years, robberies by ten to 15 years followed by confiscation of the criminal's property and robberies committed by gangs or repeatedly by fifteen to twenty years. It has been admitted en passant that among the criminals there were a number of youths and persons with no fixed occupation who operated sometimes as organized gangs, as in the case of a recent gang apprehended in the city of Przhevalsk. The aim and object of the law of 4th June 1947 was to codify in a uniform manner all laws pertaining to offences against property in the Union, to intensify the drive against crime and to wipe out all surviving criminal instincts in respect of property in the Union. ~~Among members of~~ among members of a socialist community. To fight crime was the honorable duty of all Soviet citizens. The recent drive, it was alleged, had already strengthened the hand of the law and had diminished the incidence of crime in the Union. ~~Crimes~~ against property were an survival of the capitalist system.

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contacts of rank and file members with their trade union bosses on technical matters affecting the general productivity of plants. This conference probably due to a large non party representation showed less interest in political matters and was more inclined to discuss ways and means apart from its appeal for the introduction of technical improvements for the strict enforcement of collective contracts, of greater concessions in respect of taxes affecting workmen and to the evolving of more perfect methods for the evaluation of and payment for work done.

Political and Administrative Shortcomings.

Instances of undemocratic methods in managing kolkhozi came markedly to the fore in a number of letters sent to the press by rank and file kolkhoz workers. At a regional conference of the "aktiv" of chairmen "brigadiers" and other kolkhoz officials in Uzbekistan during the reading by the chairmen were called out by name one after another and made to stand in front of the presidium as if they were school boys while references were made to their personal shortcomings or malpractices. The Ashkhabad Regional Executive Soviet was similarly accused of gross bureaucratic methods. Every month this committee adopted and issued over 120 resolutions and directives but after their issue paid little attention to enforcement, ~~whenever~~ letting matters drift haphazardly. At the Kaakha conference of regional soviets resolutions were carried without discussion and it was reported from this region that in some cases "aul" sessions were held by chairmen in the total absence of deputies. The Superintendent of a Tuberculosis Hospital in Turkmenia was alleged to have freely used such expressions as "Get Out" and "You're fired" to his subordinates. It was reported that he had actually dismissed an assistant doctor solely because he had taken a dislike to the man's face. In another case of dismissal the matter was taken to court but repeated court orders for reinstatement were of no avail and the individual discharged was finally informed that since he had been discharged no power on earth could reinstate him. The Communist Kollektiv of the Ministry of Education in Tajikistan was strongly condemned inasmuch as its members though communists, had forgotten to take measures to "steal" their ideology and not sink down to the level of ordinary citizens. Among 33 members of this particular kollektiv only ten were endeavouring to improving their ideological level and during the first nine months of 1947 only two political discussions were held for their edification. The Kollektiv failed to maintain strict discipline among its members who were invariably late in coming to their work and some of its members were even accused of taking advantage of their privileged position to defraud the state ingratifying their needs in industrial goods by using up "protected" stores intended for creches and children's homes. Among other ministries there were numerous cases of exceeding budgetary grants and much money was wantonly spent on providing posts to friends as in the case of a lady typist who had been taken on against the vacant post of an agronomist which arrangement led to the squandering on this lady of 3,700 rubles.

Much attention had to be given in Uzbekistan to conditions regulating the acceptance of party candidates as annual statistics had revealed that there were more candidates recruited from the ranks of kolkhoz and government employees than from labor ranks which was a revelation hard to swallow. Of candidates admitted to the party in Uzbekistan from July 1, 1946 to July 1, 1947 the number from labor ranks was only 14.7, from kolkhoz ranks 39.9 and from among Government servants 43.4%. In Samarkand labor was represented by 15.5%

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TURKMENISTAN

Date of Information: September-October 1946

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Turkmenia's Capital - Ashkhabad**U. S. OFFICIALS ONLY**

This "tree shaded city of roses surrounded by orchards and gardens" situated 8 miles from the ancient city of Anau and close to the ruins of Parthia's Nissa (3rd Century BC) is still suffering from an inadequate supply of water, a feature along most of the Ashkhabad - Tashkent Railway. Shortage of water when the railway was under construction actually forced engineers to align the railway much closer to the Persian frontier and the Kara Tau than was strategically expedient. However, in spite of this shortage, Ashkhabad is a growing town rapidly acquiring most the the characteristics of a modern city.

The total budget require ents of the local authorities under the 5 year Victory plan for the improvement of the water supply and for supplying greater electrical facilities to the population, which projects include the construction of a new power station with a capacity of 12 thousand kw. and the sinking of 32 new wells amount to 28 million rubles. In the words of the Chairman of the Ashkhabad Soviet "To increase our water supply, we started sinking 18 new wells in 1946. Two are ready and 7 others are nearing completion. By the end of July we will have finished the reconstruction of two old wells. We need power pumps for the new wells and if we manage to get them in time, then, by the end of the year, the water supply will increase by 500 liters per second, which will cover the city's shortage". The water supply comes from artesian wells located sometimes 20 to 30 km from the city.

Among other projects completed or about to be launched are: -

The re-construction of the Ashkhabad Railway station. This station has now a capacity to handle 1200 passengers at a time against a pre war limit of 120.

Construction of a new factory block for the Ashkhabad Textile Mills.

Increasing the number of spindles of these textile mills from 13000 to 35000.

The adding of silk-spinning and silk weaving departments to the silk reeling mills.

The construction of a factory for the manufacture of porcelain ware.

The laying out in the city of a 15 km trolley bus line.

Development of Krasnovodsk Port

According to the latest press reports the Port of Krasnovodsk, terminus of the Ashkhabad-Tashkent Railway, Central Asia's outlet to the Caspian and one of Russia's chief Maritime Gates to Central Asia, is about to be enlarged and its port facilities developed. The 1946-1950 Five Year Victory Plan envisages an increase in the flow of cotton, cement, cereals and superphosphates through Krasnovodsk by two and a half times. In 1934, the Port, the construction of which dates back to 1869 and which is only 18 hours by sea from Baku, handled the following quantities of bulk cargo:

1,380,000 tons of oil

130,000 tons of cereals

38,000 tons of timber. Later turnover figures are not at hand.

It is known, however that Krasnovodsk handled in 1946 220,000 tons of cotton.

Press reports enumerate the following re-construction and development

schemes:

Re-construction of the main piers.

Mounting of three powerful electric cranes.

Adding to the Port fleet of a powerful tug, which is expected to arrive from Leningrad

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Paving of the dock area of which already 2,700 sq meters have been completed. Setting aside of three port docks for the handling of cotton only.

The main feature of the town and the adjacent area is the "burnt and dry landscape of sand, baked mud and brown mountains" and the consequent shortage of fresh water which has to be distilled from the sea. The population of Krasnovodsk in 1936 was only 24,000. During the war the population and figures must have grown considerably though shortage of fresh water remains a limiting factor to this day.

The future of Krasnovodsk in view of limited port facilities in the Caspian which is now an inner lake of Russia is likely to be enhanced by the recently concluded Oil Agreement between Soviet Russia and Iran at Krasnovodsk may become one of the supply bases through which materials and especially manpower are to be transported to the new oil fields.

Colored Cotton

An Ashkhabad telegram claims that 40 hectares of colored cotton (green brown and other colors) are to be planted in the cotton fields of the Chapayev State Farm. The selection of seeds for these varieties of cotton is the result of many years of experimental tests by Maksimov, an associate research worker of the Yolatan experimental farm which lies on the railway between Merv and Kushka.

Cheleken Island Chemical Industries

Cheleken island at the entrance to Krasnovodsk Bay has an area of 500 sq km of sand and salt marshes. Despite these barren conditions, much construction work has been lately in evidence as plants are being put up for the working of exocerite, iodine and bromide. The Cheleken ~~exocerite~~ exocerite deposits are estimated among the largest in the Soviet Union and are most important as a source of material for the production of ceresin. A Press report states that the former primitive methods of working exocerite are now being abandoned and that since their introduction production has increased twofold. The same fields yield iodine and bromide. Cheleken is also rich in oil deposits.

Oil

Oil production in 1947 is to be doubled. The oil fields of "26 Baku Commissaries" and of "Turkmenneft" are actually making efforts to increase production 1 1/2 times already in 1946. Geological surveys indicate that the oil fields of Turkmenistan may be the richest in Soviet Central Asia. An increase in 1946-1950 of the commercial working of petroleum by 495 well sites is the figure mentioned in the 5 year plan. Special attention is to be paid to the Hekit Dagh oil fields which were opened during the war and to oil refining, a new industry for Turkmenistan.

Chemical Industries in Turkmenistan

The 5 yr plan stipulates an increase in the working of the Gaurdag sulphur deposits (east of Kerki) by 130,000 tons annually, the further development of chemical industries in the Kara Bogaz Bay which has enormous reserves of sodium sulphates, bromide etc. and the construction of a plant for the refining of these products.

The Kavl Mazar Potassium Field.

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Surveys were started here during the war and have now led to further discoveries of potassium fields at a depth of 145 and 169 meters. The reserves of Potassium (K_2O) have been estimated for the whole of Russia at 16 million tons and are mostly in the far north of European Russia in the distant Solikamsk area. Potassium finds in Turkmenistan had previously been reported in the Karluk area and indications of potassium in Okus Bulak, the Amdar Lake and in the Emba fields near Guryev. The Kuyi Masar fields are evidently an additional find.

Kuh-i-Tank Tan Lead

Rich lead deposits have been discovered in this district and have already been commercially worked. A new plant is now under construction at these mines located in Kerki district.

Water for Ashkabad, Kyal Arvat and Krasnovodsk

An expedition was recently sent out to survey additional water supply sources in the Kopet Dagh mountains for these three cities.

Communications

The new telephone exchange at Kuibyshev, north of Kurgan Ba Tuyte, has now been opened. The number of subscribers to the exchanges at Hassan Kuli and Ilyala has now doubled and Tashaus and Kerki has increased by one and a half times. All these stations are now connected with regional centers and with the capital of the republic.

11th Session of the Supreme Soviet

The 11th Session of the Soviet of the Turkmenian SSR opened today. The Session unanimously approved the following agenda: 1. The five year plan for the restoration and development of the National Economy of the Turkmenian SSR (1946-50) 2. Confirmation of the State Budget for 1945 and the report of the State Budget for 1945, 3 Confirmation of the decrees of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Turkmenian SSR made between the 10th and 11th sessions.

November-December 1946

Further notes on Oil

In 1950 production goal for oil in the Victory Plan has been fixed at 1,104,000 tons. (Para 113) Para 115 mentions that a petroleum pipeline is to be laid in the republic and para 116 that the industrial resources of petroleum shall be increased by 495 oil producing "points"

The general precis of the Victory Plan merely mentions that the output of oil in Turkmenistan in the next five years is to be increased 1.8 times and that this development is to be put through rapidly. Curiously enough this acceleration of output has been ordered not only because of the Oil Trusts of the republic are striving to make Turkmenia self sufficient in oil but because there evidently exists or under construction and the present output of crude oil which necessitates the output of oil in Krasnovodsk popularly referred to as the "oil town" of Turkmenia.

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Krasnovodsk boasts a modern refinery the erection of which was hailed as creating an entirely new industry.

The Western Kara Kum Oil Fields (Nebit Dagh)

A new powerful oil refinery plant is being constructed in this area. The first section of the new plant is already in operation and with the completion of the second section and of a cracking plant production should increase three fold this year. A pipeling across the desert 185 km long is also under construction. Nebit Dagh and the oil fields of the "26 Baku Commissaries" are to be connected by a gravel road 33 km long. At the Vishka oil fields near Nebit Dagh, in which boring operations have been most successful, plans are now being put through for the erection of a power station. New surveys for oil have also been undertaken in the western area of Nebit Dagh, where an area of 100 hectares has been set aside this year for boring purposes. During the five year period three new oil producing fields in the area are to come into operation at Keimir, Kumdag and Kotor Tape.

Nebit Dagh, a ridge 300 ft high and part of the system of the Little Balkhan hills is 23 miles to the south east from the railway station of Bala Ishan and has long been famous for its oil, exocerate, salt and hot mineral waters. Prior to the revolution, these oil fields though well known to the administration of the Trans Caspian railway (the railway even built a temporary branch line to Nebit Dagh) were but poorly explored as the Baku fields could be worked more economically. At that time oil at Nebit Dagh and on Cheleken island was mostly used by the local Turkmens as a remedy against scabies and rheumatism.

The rapid development of oil industries in Turkmenistan dates back to 1940 since when oil refineries equipped with up to date machinery have been erected. Lately considerable geological and geophysical surveys have also been undertaken aiming to increase the limits of the oil producing areas and to find in these areas sources of water suitable for drinking and technological purposes. The question of water supplies to the fields of Nebit Dagh and Vishka have been apparently more or less successfully solved by the construction of a one hundred 100 km water main bringing water from Kazandjik railway station further east. Energy for the/w of the Krasnovodsk refinery is being supplied by a steam turbine power station completed in 1945 and at the Vishka field by a Diesel installation. The installation of compressor machinery has also been reported from the oil fields; two such installations are already in operation, the third is under construction. Among individual achievements Turkmenneft reports that No. 321 well is now yielding 170 tons of oil every 24 hours.

Newspapers report that recently it became necessary to transport an oil derrick to the western area of Nebit Dagh. This derrick 41 meters high and weighing 24 tons was transported intact by four tractors over a distance of 220 km from Bala Dagh to Keimir in the course of 6 days and with the help of only 15 shock workmen. Reporters acclaim this haulage as an exceptional job.

Cheleken Island Oil Fields

There are few references to the Cheleken oil fields beyond a bare statement that the production of oil is to be increased several times. The Cheleken island has also been long known as a source of oil used since ancient times by local Turkmens from shallow wells. Commercially, the fields came into operation early in the 70 's being operated by Nobel and Tomashevsky. By 1910 oil with a gravity of 0.855 was already brought up from 16 wells yielding annually a total of 127,953 tons which had to be transported for

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Previously conducted geological surveys in the Kuh-i-Tang Mountains have now made it possible for work to start on a small scale at the Kuh-i-Tang lead mines. Recently discovered, these mines are to be further expanded.

Turkmenistan / January-February 1947

Chardzhou Shipbuilding Yards

A *Pravda* telegram from Chardzhou dated 23 October reports a decision to reconstruct the existing ship repairing works at Chardzhou which have been existence for the last 55 years into a shipbuilding yard. Following this decision the yard workshops are now being equipped with electric welding and metal cutting machinery. Diesel motors and other equipment for the steamers under construction are expected to arrive shortly. To man the yards experienced workmen are being drafted from other parts of the Soviet Union.

The Chardzhou yards are at present constructing both barges and Diesel driven steamers. The hulls of five such steamers have been completed and on arrival of the Diesel engines are to be shortly launched. Up to the end of 1946 it was planned to build additionally 6 more Diesel driven steamers as well as 15 barges each with a capacity of 100 tons.

Chardzhou has been the base, the main anchorage and the principal ship repairing yard of the *Amu Darya* Flotilla since the launching of its first steamers. In 1913 the *Amu Darya* Flotilla had 6 steamers, 2 steam launches and 13 barges, each with a capacity of 200 tons which plied between Petro-Aleksandrovsk and Termez. In those days the river flotilla was administered by the War Ministry and was commercially a non paying enterprise for which the bureaucratic methods of the army in running the flotilla, the difficult conditions of the river stream and the absence of aids to navigation along the fairway were considered to be responsible. Native means of river transport in those days were more profitable and consisted of flat bottom boats which plied between the delta of the river up to Sarai on the Pandsh above which on account of rapids they could not proceed. In bad years these boats had to terminate their up-river voyage at Faisabad about 7 miles downstream from Sarai. The number of these boats call ~~Shim~~ "shim" did not exceed 600 with a gross lifting capacity of 8,500 tons. Annually they were estimated capable of carrying up to fifty thousand tons of freight.

News on the Kara Kum Canal

The project for the building of the Kara Kum Canal has now been finally approved and construction of its first section will start in 1947, this section to be finally completed in the course of the next five years.

According to Sapitsky who is in charge of the Agricultural section of the Gosplan in Turkmenistan, the economic effects of the construction of the Kara Kum canal will be manifold and far reaching. The completion of the first section as far as the Murghab oasis will facilitate the improvement of irrigation on 111,000 hectares of poorly irrigated lands and cultivation on an additional 23,000 hectares of which 50% will be under cotton.

In the south eastern part of the Kara Kum there are fine pastoral lands which, however cannot now be properly utilized on account of a shortage of watering places. This difficulty the construction of the canal will overcome. The opening of the canal should also lead to an increase in the number of live stock in the Murghab oasis.

The canal is intended to be used as a freight artery connecting the rich Gaurdag and Kun-i-tang industrial areas with the agricultural districts of the Murghab and eventually to the Tejen oases.

The prolongation of the canal to a junction with the railway line which it will eventually cross should solve the problem of providing water to many railway stations, at present supplied at great expense from distant localities.

Ashkhabad Seismological Station

A telegram from Ashkhabad dated September 30th reports the opening within the next few days of the first seismological station of the Turkmen Physico technical Institute, an organization affiliated with the USSR Academy of Sciences. This station will be equipped with highly sensitive instruments and is meant to facilitate the deeper study of seismological phenomena in the upper ranges of the Kopet Dagh.

Turkmenistan's Meteorological Department

The Hydro-meteorological Department of the Turkmen SSR celebrated on November 15th its 20th anniversary. While reporting this event an Ashkhabad telegram discloses that the number of hydro-meteorological and avio-meteorological stations and posts under the department is 58 of which quite a few are scattered among the sands of the Kara Kum desert. Two stations, Erbent and Bahardok are in the very heart of this great desert. The Heirabad station is however high up in the Kopet Dagh mountains.

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March - April, 1947

Turkmenia in 1946

The year 1946 seems to have been a year of all round economic and cultural development in Turkmenia. Being the first year of the current Stalin Five Year Plan, 1946 in any part of the Union is almost indistinguishable from 1946 in any other part; one comes across the same "overfulfilment" of the "norm" in every branch of life in the Union's republics, with hardly any mention of any deficit in any item of the Plan.

In a recent press interview M. Mukan Babayev, President of the Soviet Ministers of the Turkmen SSR gave the following picture of Turkmenia in 1946.:

Industry of the republic on the whole has attained the highest figures in development, having to its credit a total output of 20% more than in 1945. Petroleum and chemical industries have worked particularly well, having produced much more than target figures. Some enterprises such as the Kara Bogaz Gol Sulphate Kombinat, the largest in USSR fulfilled the norm in time. Textile industry has also successfully carried out the plan, while cotton-ginning has given 9,000 tons more than in 1945.

Rural economy of the republic has made considerable progress as well, particularly cotton-growing (Turkmenia comes second after Uzbekistan in cotton-growing in general and takes the first place in growing the most valuable Soviet long fibre cotton, which has placed 13.6% more land than in 1945 under cultivation.

The other important branch of Rural Economy — sericulture — has "overfilled" the Plan: the republic has given 42.7 kilos of cocoons per case of "silk seeds" the target figure being 41.5 kilos.

The Lalkhozi and Sovkhozi of the republic have succeeded in effecting considerable increase in head of caracul sheep, and their yield of caracul sheepskins has exceeded the target.

1946 has meant extensive development of the republic's education and culture. Attendance in schools and colleges shows considerable increase as under:

	1945	1946
Primary and Semi-secondary schools	163,000	179,000
Secondary schools and institutions	3,700	5,200
Higher Educational institutions	1,900	2,600

1946 saw the opening of 13 schools for workmen's children and 44 schools for rural worker's children, and industrial technical school and an Oblast Secondary Rural Economy School.

In 1926, literacy in Turkmenistan was only 12.5% while in 1946 the figure rose up to 90%. The years of sovietization saw an increase of the republic's newspapers from 2 to 60, of which 43 are published in Turkmen. Apart from having its own higher educational institutions the republic possesses its own scientific-research institutes, experimental stations and bases.

In 1946 Turkmenia observed the fifth anniversary of its Branch of the USSR Academy of Sciences. The republic's scientists have contributed valuable work to scientific investigation. The Institute of the History of Language and Literature, attached to the Branch of the Academy of Sciences has rendered invaluable service to the republic's education by a philological study of the Turkmen language and by compiling text-books for Turkmenistan's secondary schools and higher educational institutions. The Botanical Institute carried

out extensive researches on the country's plants while the Zoo technical Institute worked on the problem of raising the product of animal husbandry. The Geological Institute gave special attention to the problem of water in the Kara-Kum desert, prepared a map of wells and underground sources. The Physical-Technical Institute prepared the formula and technology for making porcelain as also the technology for preparing liquid glass out of local ingredients. It also made an original distiller and a helio-heating-apparatus.

Theater, Opera and Ballet of Turkmenia have not lagged behind inasmuch as in 1946 the State Theater performed the folklore opera "Lala and Mejnun" and the ballet "The Fountain of Bakhchisarai" by Asafyev. Chaikovsky's "Eugene Onegin" was translated into turkmen.

The year 1947 foresees a steady development of petroleum, chemical and textile and other industries of the republic. Fuel and cotton will also receive particular attention. This year will see the beginning of the construction of the 600 km long Kara-Kum Canal, the largest undertaking of its kind in the Soviet Union. The new canal will irrigate 200,000 hectares of desert land and will be an important item in the Union's water-way system.

50th Anniversary of Krasnovodsk Port

On November 16th, 1946, Krasnovodsk authorities and workmen celebrated the 50th anniversary of Krasnovodsk Port. Though fortifications were erected at the "Red Waters" at the entrance to the Balkhan Bay by order of Peter the Great as early as in 1716, they were soon abandoned and their garrison withdrawn to Astrakhan at the mouth of the Volga. A settlement was again established on the present site of the town in 1869 but it failed to assume any importance as a port until Krasnovodsk became in 1869 the terminus of The Transcaspien railway.

In connection with the celebrations news items have appeared in the Press stressing the great importance of the Port and indicating that considerable efforts have been and are being made for the further mechanization of its facilities especially for the handling of cotton, corn, oil and chemicals. The goods turnover of the port is claimed to have increased since 1941 by 2½ times. Its importance became especially great in 1942 when Krasnovodsk remained the only transit link connecting the Union's central regions with Transcaucasia. Present day port facilities at Krasnovodsk include electrical land cranes, floating cranes for unloading grain, a port railway terminus equipped for the speedy unloading of cargo in transit to sea-going vessels, a power station, mechanical workshops, dockers clubs and other amenities. Some of these improvements are obviously of recent origin, as in 1928 it was widely known that dredging and improvement of harbor facilities were greatly overdue.

Krasnovodsk, the western terminus for the Central Asia Railway, was primarily the main outlet for raw cotton and the dried fruits of Turkmenistan and Western Uzbekistan. The rapid industrialization of Central Asia, however now demands further expansion of port facilities to deal with the ever growing volume of goods traffic across the Caspian.

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May-June 1947Turkmenia's Budget

The budget of the Turkmen republic since 1924 (the first year of Turkmenia's autonomous existence) has grown from its initial volume of ten and a half million rubles to 812 million rubles. Its continuous growth during the last two decades with a setback only during the war years will be clearly seen from the following table:

192410,587,000	1942	376,884,000
1927	28,895,000	1943	329,263,000
1932	135,788,000	1944	416,935,000
1936	324,655,000	1945	475,111,000
1940	524,588,000	1946	605,527,000
1941	546,408,000	1947	812,000,000

The high figures for 1940-41 were obviously reached as a result of the pre-war decision of the USSR to create in anticipation of the coming ~~imminent~~ crisis an industrial base in the east of the Union. The lower figures for 1942-45 reflect actual war conditions when capital investments for other than war purposes were drastically curtailed and expenditure on projects under construction or on cultural items and on the republic's administration had to be rigorously adjusted. 1944 reflects the break in war fortunes consequent on which there was a return to retrenchment policies. Since then the volume of receipts and expenditure under the budget has been steadily rising reaching its peak in 1947.

The growth of Turkmenia's budget is attributed to three main factors: to rapid industrialization and the creation of a Turkmen national industry which was practically non-existent before 1924; to the reorganization and the creation of a Turkmen national industry which was practically non-existent before 1924; to the reorganization of agriculture on the basis of collective and state farming and to a planned increase in expenditure on educational and cultural facilities for the benefit of the Turkmen masses. Whereas in 1924 expenditure per annum in the republic per head was only 11.4, it had grown by 1927 to 27.8 rubles or 59.3% of budget appropriations on educational social and cultural items.

It is expected that 1948 will see a further increase in both revenues and expenditure in connection with projects under the current five year plan which postulate an all round increase in cotton-growing, oil extraction, coal mining, in the production of meat and milk and in other industries. Apart from these planned increases the socialist competitive movement, under an intensive propaganda drive is rapidly gaining momentum, should also bring an increase in the budget.

In the first year of the current five year plan industries fully carried out their prescribed targets. In oil the plan was overfulfilled (102.2 per cent) as well as in the chemical industries (109.7%). Of individual items of chemical production sulphur was 104.5 % and sulphates 101.2%.

The presentation of the budget to the all Union Supreme Soviet Session usually gives an opportunity for registering legitimate grievances and complaints by representatives of local republics.

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At the recent Moscow session a Turan representative reproved certain republican ministries for their tendency to analyse production figures solely from a quantitative point of view, also for the absence of any sustained efforts to cut down cost of production and for over-expenditure of raw materials, fuel, electrical power and for considerable wastage of manpower in the industries of the republic.

In the opinion of the same speaker cotton production in the republic had been seriously handicapped by the inadequacy of irrigation facilities. Steps taken for the rectification of this had been, in his opinion, inadequate. Thus, though the construction of the Kara Kum canal was a matter of urgency and the project had been finally approved, very little to further it was done in a practical way and equipment, building materials, and transport means had not even been allocated for its implementation. Another Deputy complained that tractors and tractor parts were slow in reaching Turkmenia, that mineral fertilizers (24,000 tons) which the Ministry of Chemical Industries had undertaken to deliver to the republic, were arriving only in dribbles, and that should their bulk arrive after June, it would be too late to use them this season. According to this speaker though there was a shortage of cement in the republic, the Besmeinsky Cement works which had actually been erected could not start production as they had not yet received the necessary equipment and machinery.

The Silver Express

Trial runs of Diesel Engine trains were recently carried out between Ashkhabad and Krasnovodsk and a regular express service between these two cities to run at an average speed of 80-100 km was to be established from mid-February. In describing the trial runs a correspondent who had accompanied the Silver Express from Ashkhabad dealt on the many improvements already established along this line including the introduction of automatic traffic controls and of the train despatching system which had made possible a considerable increase in speed. The Silver Express has three passenger coaches which can accommodate 136 passengers in air conditioned, dust proof coaches, the interior of which has been panelled in speckled birch. The coaches have seats with triplex spiral springs upholstered in morocco leather, are provided with hot and cold water and are flooded with diffused electric light.

Motive power is supplied by two Diesel engines of 310 hp placed at each end of the train. These engines are considered economical as they enable the train to reach a speed of 120 km p.h. using only 1.5 kg of fuel per km. The cabin of the driver is connected with the brakeman's cabin in the rear of the train. Controls are easy and by the simple use of a switch both Diesel engines, transmissions and pneumatic brakes can be applied within 32 seconds. At a speed of 110 km the train can be brought to a standstill within 400 - 500 meters. The headlights of the engines are particularly powerful and can be seen at a distance of two to three kilometers which is considered an additional precaution against accidents when travelling at night.

On the trial run the Silver Express travelled at an average speed of 85 km and reached Krasnovodsk in 7 hours and 20 minutes (5-2-7).

Diesel engine trains have also been under trial runs on the Tashkent line. A ~~press~~ Pravda telegram of 1-3-47 reports delivery at Tashkent of two express diesel engine trains which are to be worked on the run between Tashkent and Andijan. On a trial run between these two stations the distance was covered in 8 hours. It usually takes 18 hours.

January - March 1948

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The Turkmenian Oil Trust (Turkmenneft)

Sham As a result of a wide-spread propaganda and of a publicity drive with the slogan "Produce more to meet the country's growing needs in oil" certain positive attainments can be registered in respect of Turkmenneft, an organization responsible for the production and refining of oil in Turkmenia. Turkmenia is rich in oil as its western oil fields form the eastern edge of an extensive oil-bearing region spreading as far west as the Apsheron Peninsula near Baku. Oil bearing pools in Turkmenistan have been so far discovered at Nebit Dagh, Kum Dagh, Boya Dagh, Monjukli and Kotur Tepe and are expected to yield eventually millions of tons of crude oil, placing Turkmenia next to Azerbaijan and the USSR as regards the volume of oil production in the USSR. That more importance is being now attached to the development of the oil producing capacity of Turkmenia can be gathered from the fact that according to a decree of the Council of Ministers of the regional oil industries of the USSR, the oil industries of Turkmenia were recently brought under the Ministry of Oil Industries of the Southern and Western Regions. This amalgamation was expected to enable these regional industries to avail themselves of the well developed Baku machine building and mechanical industries and thus to speed up the erection and modernisation of the equipment of new or existing installations on oil bearing fields, east of the Caspian. As compared with 1946, oil production in Turkmenia is scheduled to increase twofold by 1950 as part of the overall plan to bring up the production of crude oil in the USSR within 15 years to 60,000,000 tons. In order to achieve this capital investments in Turkmenia would amount to 33,000,000 rubles, inclusive of the cost of construction of 18,400 sq. meters of residential accommodation for the personnel of the expanding oil industries.

That the new construction program in the oil fields of Turkmenia was a rush priority job was evident from the fact that the local press was becoming extremely apprehensive of the many delays in carrying it out according to previously adopted time tables. These delays were openly attributed to an absence of expert technical supervision on construction sites to unsatisfactory arrangements made for the speedy implementation of plans in hand and to a reckless and sometimes unproductive dispersal of labor among numerous construction jobs. The building Trust of the Oil Industries was in consequence occasionally accused of gross mismanagement in delaying the completion of a number of construction jobs on the ozocerite plant, of Compressor station No. 3 at Nebit Dagh and of many other buildings. En passant, the Trust was rated for using unseasoned timber for floors in dwelling houses and offices which had subsequently to be ripped up and for using on construction jobs stone materials not in conformity with building specifications.

As regards the prospecting and drilling of new oil wells press correspondents have steadfastly maintained that the Keimir, Hudai Dagh, Monjukli and Boya Dagh pools were giving indications of most favorable output possibilities. The existing conditions for the prospecting and drilling of test holes in these new fields were, however openly admitted to be hardly suitable for extensive geological surveys and efficient prospecting operations or for the application of shock "stakhanovite" methods. There were obviously delays in exploration work at practically all of the new fields. At Hudai Dagh drilling was to have started on 2/4/47 but had to be delayed for two months. Living conditions

at Hudai Dag were extremely primitive as the few existing buildings at this oil field were nothing but shacks, badly in need of repairs or replacement. The arrangement for supplying provisions to the personnel at Hudai Dag was also called for much improvement. At this desolate field there were no amenities for the labor gangs, not even radio receiving sets. At Keimir the conditions under which laborers had to work were even more backward. The Keimir oil field was about 300 kilometers from Nabit Dag and though prospecting and drilling had been carried out there for several years Keimir was but poorly equipped technically and had no proper "material and technical" base. Derricks were from three to eight kilometers from the labor settlement with which they were not connected by telephone. Messing arrangements for the labor gangs were poor. There was no bakery and the workmen had to live in congested quarters. The Kotur Teps field was also in a way of disappointing, for though drilling to a depth of 500 meters had been done here there seemed to be no systematic plans for the further development of the field. Plans for the construction of roads to the oil field and within the settlement and for providing water had been approved but no actual construction work was undertaken as no building materials could be made available for the erection of dwelling houses. A geophysical survey party arrived at Kotur Teps in February 1947 but they were handicapped in their work by poor organization on the spot. More success was reported from the Kum Dag field where the drilling of a prospective well had been completed on 20/7/47 to the extent of 515 meters.

Neither was all well at the existing fields. At the "26 Baku Commissars" field 30% of the wells were out of use and current plans for bringing them back into commercial operation in the first seven months of 1947 had been carried out only to the extent of 57%. This field was one of the most "progressive" fields of the Ashkhabad region. Output targets here had been actually overfulfilled and production costs lowered by 10.3%. It was alleged however that these favorable production results had been achieved only because of a large number of active wells, but that compressor extraction and deep boring were applied only to the extent of 50% and 90% of the existing development plan. Installations, especially underground were badly in need of repairs, were generally neglected as the management of the field was evidently more interested in dishing out "average" figures of production and prime cost than in establishing rigid controls over the upkeep of machines or the expenditure of materials, fuel, electric power, or in cutting down overhead expenses. The personnel working at the fields had undertaken obligations to raise production further, but to achieve this many "imperfections" in the technology of production would have to be first removed. August-September production results were encouraging as the daily average output had risen to 118% - 120%. However, from October onwards the production curve began to drop steadily. Since late in the summer output had been actually exceeded and a mood of complacency had evidently gripped the entire personnel of the fields. The management was resting on its laurels and did little to increase the production of oil by compressor methods as a result of which 23,000 tons of oil from wells worked by compressor pumping had been short delivered to the state over a period of nine months. The six new wells which were to have come into operation in July-August had also not been completed.

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To achieve greater efficiency many shortcomings had also to be removed at the Nebit Dagh fields. The immediate task at Nebit Dagh were the introduction of more up to date methods in the working and exploitation of oil wells, the speeding up of the drilling of new wells, the cutting down of prime costs and the further prospecting for new wells. During the war much was done to raise the efficient working at this field. A powerful electric station was erected, the water supply was increased and the tempo of drilling and the exploration of new oil fields with the introduction of new techniques were likewise somewhat accelerated. Deep drilling in the western part of Nebit Dagh during the last ten years have, in fact made it possible to realize the output tenfold. Development plans for 1947 included the sinking of six new oil wells to a depth of 2,500-3000 meters.

It was reported in August that a new Diesel power station of 3000 kw. was to be completed to supply the needs of Nebit Dagh settlement, the requirements of the Bala Ishem Waterworks Center of the mechanical workshops and oxygen and timber plants and of such other small industrial plants. The cost of the power station was estimated at four million rubles exclusive of equipment. Work was also continued on the Vishka-Krasnovodsk oil pipe line. The water supply to Nebit Dagh was, however, still deficient and came from Kasandjik, a distance of 150 kms. and from the Bay of Ordykli on the Caspian shore, 65 kilometers distant, and its cost worked out as high as three and a half roubles per cubic meter. Apart from its high cost the supply could not always be maintained at a constant flow, its irregularity causing interruptions in the working of the oil fields. The water pipe line connecting Vishka with Ordykli also badly needed repairing.

In respect of housing at Nebit Dagh there was little improvement and questions were often asked in the press as to when most of the houses to be constructed would be completed. At one time it was decided to improve housing conditions at Nebit Dagh by construction individual cottages, which when completed were to be sold to the personnel of the oil fields, but up to date none of these houses have been erected and the builders confessed that they in fact had no blue prints or estimates for the construction of small private houses.

Among general improvements affecting the output of Turkmenneft was a better supply of trained personnel from the Ashkhabad Oil "Technicum". This Institute had three departments and provided trained technicians not only to the Turkmenneft Trust but to other oil fields in Russia. Its new geophysical department had its counterpart only at Ufa and trained students in geophysics to do work previously carried out by geologists. The other two departments of the Institute trained specialists in drilling and other field practices and in general work at oil fields and oil refineries.

As regards technical improvements in the oil fields of Turkmenneft voices were raised blaming the management of the Nebit Dagh oil field for inadequately using their new compressor installations. No "prophylactic" repairs were carried out on these installations and some were obviously in bad need of repairs. It was also brought out by correspondent that the Turkmenneft Trust paid little attention to the proper exploitation of oil wells which had shown signs of a decrease in production or to the introduction of compressor machinery on older fields. Neither did the extent of deep boring answer present day requirements. During the first seven months of 1947 deep drilling had been carried out to 89.1% of the target plan, test drilling in old areas to that of 54.9% and in

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personnel of the Nebit Dagh oil fields had ceased altogether. No control was either exercised over independent home studies carried on by members of the party. Party organs in some cases had even neglected to convoke general meetings of workers over periods as long as one year, and at the oilfield of the "26 Baku Commissars" no meetings had been held in the first half of 1947. An October report on labor conditions at Vishka was to the effect that due to inefficiency in the management of the field, pay in checks were often delayed from 10 to 15 days. Rationed goods were also supplied irregularly and with considerable delay. Workers in this field complained that their diet was deficient as they could not obtain any vegetables and that the quality of food supplied at the mess was invariably poor. The Vishka administration, it is obvious, paid little attention to the specific terms of their collective labor contracts which were often neglected and bypassed.

In spite of the above observations it would be, of course, wrong to come to the conclusion that the oil industries have not achieved considerably successes in the development of Turkmenistan's oil "province" which has an oil area more extensive than in any other part of the world. Geologists and geophysicists discovered on its territory not less than 40 potential oil bearing areas with rich resources of high quality oil. of the commercially operated fields the Nebit Dagh field has been in operations for twenty years and with each successive year it has yielded oil in larger quantities. Since the decision made in 1940 by the Central Committee of the Communist Party on the necessity of developing Turkmenias oil resources considerable progress has undoubtedly been made, though there is still much room for further progress. Much has been achieved to overcome the evident shortage of water in most of the oil fields and it was recently contended that the "problem of water" in Western Turkmenistan had been successfully solved, water sources having been found and utilized in Kasandjik, Bala Isken and from underground sources at Nebit Dagh and Krasnovodsk. Two compressor stations have also been completed and a third was in process of erection. Progress in certain cases was accelerated by the employment of experienced engineers and skilled workmen from Azerbaijan. Drilling operations have been on the increase from year to year, and in 1945, 17,600 meters of more drilling were effected than in the previous year. Since the inauguration of the first five year plan Nebit Dagh has considerably grown and is rapidly becoming Oil City No. 1 of Western Turkmenistan. Of new oil fields Akdair, Kum Dagh and Kotur Tepe are especially promising and the first two are scheduled to come into operation in 1947-48.

Last October Nebit Dagh was the venue of a scientific conference devoted to the oil geology of Western Turkmenistan. Its ~~main~~ sittings were presided over by Malivkin. The conference discussed reports submitted by experts of the Turkmennefit Trust, of the Central Asian Section of the Geophysical Trust and of the All Union Oil Institute. The conference placed on record its unanimous opinion about the considerable oil potential of the Western Turkmenistan oil province. Press reports, however, cautiously mentioned that the rapid development of this new oil province was made difficult because of its desert terrain, the prevalence of Barkhan sand dunes, the absence of water and vegetation and lack of transport. The Conference recommended the further development of geological and geophysical surveys and of increased test drilling.

Excerpts from an article by A. Sidorenko
published in the "Turkmenkaya Iskra" of
31/8/47

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The Mineral Riches of Turkmenistan and the prospects of their Utilization

Before the Revolution, Turkmenistan was looked upon as a region poor in useful minerals. Thus one of the well-known geologists wrote at that time that as regards useful minerals the country "did not justify the hopes pinned on it". It is true that formerly individual attempts were made to work the petroleum and ozocerite beds of Chaleken, the sulphate deposits of Kara Bogaz and the sulphur beds of Kara Kum, but it proved to be beyond the power of private entrepreneurs like Nobel, Faibushevitch or Piteev to conduct mining operations under difficult natural conditions and so these were soon suspended.

The Soviet Power has awakened the rich country dozing in the sun. With the formation of the Turkmenian Republic began a systematic study of its natural resources which showed that Turkmenia is rich in useful minerals and that it contains mineral deposits of world wide importance. The natural riches of Turkmenistan which is equal in area to any Central European State, are enormous.

The first to begin a study of the desert were Academician A.E. Fersman and the geologist D. E. Shcherbakov who accomplished the expedition to sulfur deposits and demonstrated the possibility of extracting sulphur here.

The colossal petroleum wealth of western Turkmenistan is derived from deposits which are a geological continuation to the east of the famous petroleum beds of Baku. Here amidst unending sands, takyr and salt marshes — relics of the recent recession of the Caspian Sea — different mounds rise: Nebit Dag, Kum Dag, Boya Dag, Monjukly, Kotur Tepe. These are cupola like bulges of the earth's crust great containing petroleum. Enormous stocks lie concealed in their depths. Even at the most conservative estimate, they exceed tens of millions of tons of petroleum. Now oil extraction is being carried out chiefly in Nebit Dag where the wells are incessantly throwing up "black gold" from their depths. Here in the thirties one of the wells gushed out in a colossal fountain, like the ones at Baku, throwing up more than 100,000 tons of petroleum in a few days.

This year the Turkmenneft has resorted to deep boring and at the same time new beds to the south of the cis-Caspian lowland at Keinir and Kum Dag are being prospected. Preparations are being made for boring a most promising oil bed at Kotur Tepe, situated in the midst of almost impassable sands between Nebit Dag and Chaleken.

By the end of the new Stalin sponsored five year Plan the Turkmen SSR will come to occupy the third place in the Soviet Union, next to Azerbaijan and RSFSR in petroleum extraction. In the lowlands of Turkmenia big oil industries are springing up in which the number of working pits will be raised to a few hundred and the total output will be in the neighborhood of one million tons of oil per annum.

Very big deposits of ozocerite or mineral wax which are of world wide importance and which are closely connected with petroleum are found at Chaleken. Soviet Turkmenistan is the principal supplier of ozocerite for the electrical, chemical and paint industries of the Soviet Union. The ozocerite deposits are now being sedulously investigated and this will allow its extraction to be doubled by the end of the pyatiletka.

The petroleum beds of Turkmenistan contain at the same time deposits of iodates and bromates of world wide importance. Hot waters with a temperature of up to 60° C gush out of fissures in oil beds from great depths. These very brackish waters contain much iodine and bromine. At present they are partially extracted. By the end of pyatiletka their extraction will increase

one and a half times. There is reason to suppose that these waters possess curative properties.

To the north of the area where petroleum industry is developing sulphate extraction is being conducted. The Bay of Kara Bogaz Gol was known long ago as the bed of mirabilite or the "wonderful salt" as sodium sulphate is called.

Here every year in the winter a layer of sulphate up to 1 meter is formed at the bottom of the Bay. It is collected and sent to satisfy the needs of the chemical, glass and paper industries. More than 300 enterprises in the Soviet Union from Vladivostok to Leningrad have been consumers of Turkmenian mirabilite. For creating the most rational technique for extracting sulphate and simplifying the complex process of obtaining salts of bromine, a large team of collaborators is at work, including scientific workers of the Turkmenian Branch of the USSR Academy of Sciences under the guidance of Academician G. G. Urazov.

To the north of Nebit Dag, in the great Balkhan Hills is to be found the Yagman coal-bed. After the work carried out by Rejman the geologist and K. Mashrykov, the aspirant for membership of the Turkmenian Branch of the Academy of Sciences, the reserves of coal are known to be much larger than before and one may already speak of the "Great Yagman". Here in the very near future the existing shafts will be extended and new ones constructed, giving an annual yield of 20-25 thousand tons of coal by the end of the pyatiletka.

Such are the useful minerals of Turkmenistan's western industrial area. At present constructive work is in full swing there, new oil fields are being prospected new oil pits are being sunk, oil and water pipes are being laid. Thousands of laborers are seized with a great enthusiasm for work.

A second industrial area is springing up on the east of Turkmenistan where chiefly the chemical industry is developing. On the basis of the bitterest sulphur deposits of the Soviet Union at Gauriag a Chemical Combine is being set up. This Combine along with the other chemical enterprises will raise the gross output of chemical production to such an extent that it will exceed the prewar level by 3.8 times. Along with rhombic sulphur, this chemical combine will turn out sulphuric acid, the basic raw material for the chemical industry and up to 200 thousand tons of the most valuable fertiliser, namely superphosphates which is absolutely indispensable for cotton cultivation in Turkmenistan. The Republic's requirements of superphosphate will be fully satisfied. Deposits of kitchen and soda potassium salts have been discovered in this very area. By the end of the pyatiletka a number of coal pits will be sunk with an annual outturn of up to 50 thousand tons of semi anthracite coal which as the work of the Turkmen branch of the Academy of Sciences has shown can be turned into good coke. In this area there are also building materials.

At the present time Kopet Dag and its spurs still remain imperfectly studied. Although they merit the most meticulous attention, being a comparatively densely populated area situated near the railway and the economic and administrative centers of the Republic.

The search for polymetallic ores in Kopet Dag promises specially good results. This work has not yet started in high earnest. Not less important is the search for petroleum and combustible gases in the low-lying Kopet Dag area where the need for fuel is very great. Here geo physical operations are of primary importance.

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Many organisations of ours, knowing little about the usefull minerals of their country do not utilize them. For instance in the environs of the city of Kushk on Lake Broylan or Duz there are large stocks of high grade kitchen salt which can fully satisfy the needs of the Sarakhs and Takhta Bazar districts. Formerly this salt used to be manufactured and esported even to Afghanistan but now they prefer to import salt from 'ebel which is more than 1300 km away. There is now a large consumption of mineral dyes in connection with the extensive construction works in western Turkmenistan. Beds of such dyes occur in the environs of Kiyal Arvat and Kara Kala, in the Nebit Dag, Cheleken. Technological experiments carried out in the Turkmenian Branch of the USSR Academy of Sciences revealed their superior qualities. But the majority of the enterprises use imported dyes.

Turkmenistan is rich in natural resources. Nearly 500 different mineral beds have been "registered" as lying in its bowels. A considerable number of these are being worked. The rest can be utilized after a further study of their quantity and quality is made. In connection with the building of the petroleum and chemical industries, the laying of the Chardshou Kungrad railway the opening of new pits and mines and the construction of the Kara Kum Canal wide prospects are opening up before the Republic. A whole host of new questions is cropping up as to the most rational way of utilizing the Republic's natural riches.

End of Article

Centners

2,000,000 Centners of Cotton

The failure to attain the 1947 cotton harvest target of two million centners is now an established and widely acknowledged fact. The reasons for this dismal failure as disclosed in the regional press and in official communications are manifold and complex and their enumeration may be of some interest as revealing striking shortcomings in the every day work of a "socialist" economy.

Indications that all was not well with the 1947 cotton crop could be gleaned from the press in August when numerous guidance slogans and appeals were first formulated by party organs exhorting collective farmers to attain a record harvest in a "bolshervist" way. Farmers were duly reminded that they had given their word to Stalin to collect two million ~~centners~~ centners of cotton and a socialist drive was simultaneously started in competition with Tajik farmers to stimulate their efforts in this direction. Farmers were asked to spare no pains in cultivating their cotton fields throughout August and to make full use of irrigation facilities. It was stressed already in August that not only days but hours counted in this campaign especially in the defaulting Marghab and Tashauz regions. A general directive was broadcast not to relax efforts in tending the fields ~~from the beginning to the end of the campaign~~ until the harvest was finally collected and to organize night shifts for irrigation purposes and other urgent work. These were duly instituted but without much success as in the absence of moonlit nights and of hurricane lamps indiscriminate irrigation brought often more harm than good. The farmers were admonished not to repeat mistakes of the 1946 harvesting campaign which included the delivery of moist, unclean and unsorted cotton and to take steps in good time to check and repair all available scales and standard weights, as in 1946 collective farmers were often compelled to use primitive

and inaccurate scales and weights which were often nothing but bricks and stones with the result that deliveries revealed discrepancies in weight amounting to ten per cent or more. Among other measures recommended was the supply to the farmers of aprons with separate pockets to enable the pickers to sort cotton at the time of picking. 30,000 such aprons were ordered but that was only a drop in the ocean. Special precautions were to be taken to avoid the delivery of moist or unclean cotton which practice had in the past often entailed extra work as defective deliveries had to be returned to the farmers for additional processing. They were also advised not to prepare their bills of lading at the collecting centers as this practice had, in the past, been taken advantage of by organizations entrusted with the collection of cotton.

But it was not only the farmers who were admonished to be prepared for the harvesting of the new cotton crop. Departments in charge of means of transport or responsible for the maintenance of roads and bridges were strongly reminded of their duties. To their notice was brought, for instance, the fact that both the Chardzhou-Sarabekaul and Chardzhou Denau roads were well nigh impassable, that along other roads there were many damaged bridges which had to be repaired before the flow of cotton to collective centers started. Managers of collecting centers were also warned to complete their preparations as some of these centers were short of technical staff for the examination and grading of cotton, had in fact no facilities for drying cotton and no adequate clerical staff for properly recording deliveries and for book keeping.

Reports coming through in September continued to be gloomy. Already the first days of harvesting revealed that the practice of harvesting unripe cotton persisted, that preparations on kolkhoz farms for collecting the harvest were not proceeding according to any plan and the kolkhoz farmers had not made arrangements of the grading of the crop. There were delays in starting work in the fields which seemed unwarranted and the necessity of speeding up harvesting was continuously brought to the attention of the farmers. Further cases of negligence were recorded as for instance the dumping of harvested cotton in dirty cattle yards. Towards the end of September it became evident that though in individual districts deliveries were proceeding smoothly (Kashka leading with 60.34%) the average result for the republic amounted to only 7.98% and that the acceleration of harvesting was proceeding at an extremely slow pace, the average harvesting results between 23rd and 25th September rising only from 7.98 to 9.06%.

A number of kolkhoz chairmen were accused, at this stage, of delivering cotton on invoices which had no indication of the grade of cotton and of negligently transporting cotton to collecting centers. All of the roads leading to these centers, it was alleged, were strewn with cotton picking due to the faulty baling or careless handling of consignments and to the fact that the lorries engaged in the transport of cotton were supplied with cotton ropes. Slogans were consequently again raised in September calling for delivery to the state of graded cotton and emphasizing the necessity of collecting the harvest quickly and without undue losses in the fields or along roads leading to collecting centers. These slogans, however, seemed to be of little avail and towards the end of the month it was broadcast that none of the cotton raising regions in Turkmenia had carried out their quota undertakings and that harvesting was going on at a slower pace than in previous years. There were also complaints against the work of cotton ginneries. These in the second decade of September had fulfilled their allotted tasks but, as alleged, only because their targets had been set at an extremely low

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level. At the same time the Tashkent ginnery was overloaded and could not cope with its work, revealing indications of an unequal and faulty distribution of cotton to the ginneries.

On September 30, it was admitted that unfavorable weather conditions had delayed the ripening and harvesting of the cotton. This natural handicap impeding the timely gathering of the harvest was, however, considered a less decisive factor in causing delays than the man made obstacles for which party and soviet organs were primarily responsible. It was alleged that regional officers striving for the success of the campaign to collect two million centners of cotton were not aware of and were not keenly interested to ascertain the actual conditions on kolkhoz farms. No proper guidance was ever given by them to kolkhoz farmers and there was no close control over the progress of work in the fields; labor cadres were in many cases not fully mobilized and the work of cotton pickers was organized in a haphazard way. In the Komsomol kolkhoz, for instance, of sixty farm hands only half were working in the fields but even they were not carrying out the prescribed low daily norm of 20 kilos of cotton per picker. (100 lbs in the USA). Meals in the fields had not been properly arranged with the result that half of the day was wasted as laborers had to return home for their meals. No proper attention was paid to the grading of cotton, there continued to be great losses in the fields in its collection and it was becoming daily more evident that the set target for Turkmenia could not be achieved.

There was little improvement recorded in October, which is the decisive month in the harvesting of cotton. The set target demanded delivery of 70% of selected and higher grades but no more attention was paid to grading in October than in the first two months. The tempo of harvesting also showed hardly any improvement. From the Mary region came complaints that there was no reason to hurry as the harvest was late and there was no ripe cotton to pick and that intensive harvesting could not be started before early December. But such reports were branded as irresponsible and as a manifestation of widespread slackness among the many cotton growers. Appeals were again broadcast to speed up harvesting and to put a decisive end to the harmful practice of indiscriminate collection of cotton, irrespective of grade. Certain deliveries, it was alleged, contained 62.6% of first, 34.6% of second, 2.2% of third and 0.6% of fourth grades whereas state specifications allowed only 8% of seconds and 2% of thirds. As a result of gross negligence such as the drying of cotton on wet ground, the harvesting of unripe cotton and its contamination with sand and other impurities and of widespread short deliveries throughout the republic it was reported on October 5, that Turkmenia was behind all other cotton producing regions in the USSR as regards deliveries, with Azerbaijan leading with 54.09% and Tajikistan a good second with 46.58%. A curious observation was made that though estimates by agronomists in the field showed that crop anticipations in certain kolkhozi amounted to an 18% of first no firsts were later delivered which proved the complete disregard of directives in respect of grading. On 18th October, regional papers admitting the late ripening of cotton due to weather conditions and the low level of water in the rivers and irrigation canals stressed again the lack of labor discipline and the defective style of general guidance given by party and soviet organizations and their inability to enforce discipline in the field. In the Mary district cotton fields were left largely unattended. Farmers were late in coming to work and idled away their time taking advantage of the daily recess for dinner. They were systematically unfulfilling their daily and five day quotas for which it was alleged, the absence of mass political instruction and guidance was mainly to blame.

A comprehensive summary of the results of 1947 cotton season and of the tasks confronting Turkoman cotton growers this year was given in a speech made on 4 January by Batyrev, Secretary of the Turkmenian Communist Party.

Batyrev admits that the target for the 1947 cotton season had been achieved by December 20th to the extent of 61.3% only, variations in achievements throughout the republic being very considerable. The Ashkhabad region, for instance, had exceeded its target to the extent of 193.8%, whereas execution in the Mary region amounted to only 59.9%. The cotton yield per hectare was as follows. Ashkhabad - 15.4 centners, Chardzhou 10.7 (13.7 in 1946) and Tashaus 7.18 against the previous 10.9; and for the whole of the republic it had actually dropped from 11.5 in 1946 to 7.85 centners in 1947. Party secretaries of regional and district committees were prone to exaggerate the influence of adverse weather conditions in the summer of 1947 though in his opinion the disastrous failure of the harvest was due more to poor management, imperfect planning and bad work. In view of unfavorable weather conditions (the low level of the Amu Darya, the shallowness of the Marghab and cold waves in April and May, the time factor in the stages of sowing, irrigation and cultivation of cotton should have been more seriously considered, but in fact had been altogether overlooked. There were very big delays in the planting of cotton which was completed in the Mary region with a time lag of 25 days, 39 days in Chardzhou and 33 in the Tashaus regions. The cultivation (thinning) of the cotton plants was partly neglected and on the appointed dates only 20% of the cotton plantations were properly thinned. Gross errors were committed in not implicitly following instructions of cotton specialists. Early autumn irrigation was not applied and mineral fertilizers were added only late in the autumn. Irrigating the fields late in September practised in certain areas and even in the first ten days of October further delayed the ripening of the cotton. Planters in Turkmenia failed to pay due attention to the cultivation of lucerne in rotation with cotton without which the fertility of the soil becomes exhausted and no adequate fodder base can be established for the development of animal husbandry.

The target for lucerne planting in 1947 was 62 thousand hectares but in the autumn of 1947 only 37,589 hectares had been planted. Much of the lucerne crop actually perished and in 1947 in the Tashaus region alone over 8000 hectares had to be abandoned. Apart from this harmful attitude towards lucerne cultivation, the irrigation of cotton fields was neglected. During the war and the two following years no investments had been made to improve the irrigation system and irrigation facilities had considerably deteriorated. To combat the silting of irrigation canals and ditches a large number of kolkhoz farmers had to be employed in the autumn and winter in cleaning the irrigation network instead of being more usefully employed in getting prepared for the new sowing campaign. As a result of inattention to melioration work by the Ministry of Irrigation, part of the irrigation system could not be brought into operation and over considerable areas the accumulation of subsoil waters had resulted in salination.

There were numerous cases of violation of the articles of association of the Agricultural Artel, including instances of public land being appropriated for private cultivation cases of kolkhoz assets being wantonly squandered and of democratic principles governing kolkhoz administration being grossly disregarded. According to Batyrev's charge sheet the launching of socialist competition drives was of a formal character and there was little control over the execution of socialist undertakings. True Bolshevik

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responsibility was absent in guiding the work of cotton farmers. Decisive resolutions were continuously adopted, but seldom implemented. Advice and guidance from agricultural specialists was not often followed and hardly any attempt had been made to select and instruct fresh cadres of specialists from among kolkhoz farmers.

After citing individual cases of malpractices in the Mary, Tashauz, and Chardzhou regions, Batyrev outlines the party's plans for the current 1948 season. These included the timely preparation of the irrigation system for earlier flooding of the fields. The lowering of the level of the Murghab river for two consecutive seasons had made it, in his opinion, more imperative to translate the construction of the Marn Kum canal from its blue print stage to one of practical reality. The construction of this canal was to be urgently proceeded with so as to achieve its completion one year earlier than planned and give the cotton growers of the Mary area an ample supply of badly needed water as early as possible. The timely mobilization of tractor stations and the creation of conditions which would enable these stations to function without hindrance was another urgent task. The distribution of tractors and of other mechanical facilities had to be planned in such a way as to give maximum service to cotton growers and ensure complete efficiency in the working of these stations. Thirdly, the harmful practice of assigning the poorest lands to the planting of cotton was to be drastically dealt with. The planting of cotton was to be started two or three weeks earlier than last year and completed by the 15th April. A further mechanization of cotton cultivation by 10 % was also to be undertaken.

Though the quantity of mineral fertilizers in 1948 was not likely to exceed that of 1947, all measures were to be taken for their equitable distribution and efficient use. Steps were also to be taken for the manuring of at least 50% to 60% of the cultivated area and autumn irrigation was to be completed by the 20th 25th of August.

In his speech Batyrev found it expedient to give some attention to conditions under which agricultural experts were toiling. He advocated that agronomists were to be relieved of all paper work, of compiling innumerable returns and that party and Soviet organs were to ensure their provision with normal living and working conditions which had been denied to them in the past. The utmost attention was to be paid to enforcing control over the execution of plans and the implementation of decisions. In a word, all available forces were to be mobilised for the development of the USSR and to outlive the dismal failure of the 1947 crop. The slogan for 1948 was to be "Vse Dlya Khlopkov" (all for cotton).

A recent article in the Turkmeneskaya Iskra agreed with the opinion of the Plenum of the Communist Party of Turkmenia that the main reason for the failure in 1947 of the cotton crop was not adverse weather conditions but the unsatisfactory way in which guidance to the farmers was provided by party and soviet organizations. These organizations had not yet outlived their harmful bureaucratic approach to vital problems of cotton cultivation and had not followed up their planning by mass political work and day to day control of the progress of work in the fields. The time factor, so important in the cultivation of cotton was badly undervalued in 1947 and this was followed by gross inattention to elementary agricultural techniques. In the Tekhman kolkhoz, for instance, the yield per hectare of cotton which in 1946 reached

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51 centners dropped in 1947 to 20 centners. It was the bounded duty of all cotton growers to remove conditions which had led to the non-fulfilment of the 1947 target and to aspire to its overfulfilment in 1948.

April-June, 1948

New Varieties of Cotton

It was reported that this year collective farms in Turkmenistan would be increasing considerably large quantities of new varieties of cotton which would after long experiments hold out great prospects. The increase in the yield as compared with the usual varieties is reckoned at between 15 and 25 per cent.

Ten hectares of farmlands in the Kerkel rayon had already been sown with new varieties and the type "5476", evolved by Turkmen selectionists, had already begun to be cultivated in the Murghab valley.

Along the Course of the Karakum

According to a Tass report from Ashkhabad 250 specialists and workers of the Turkmen Geological Department had started hydro-geological investigations at the end of March along the whole stretch of the 440 kilometer course of the first section of the Karakum canal. The expedition undertaking the task was in constant contact with Moscow and Ashkhabad, and in order to facilitate and accelerate the work along the course of the canal, a laboratory for physico-mechanical and chemical analysis of subsoil waters had begun to function already. A hydro-geological station was also set up for studying subsoil waters of the Murghab basin.

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Victory Plan Irrigation Projects

Turkmenia, the driest area in Russian Central Asia has a climate closely resembling that of Egypt with water resources very unevenly distributed. The districts adjoining the Amu Darya have an abundance of moisture while the most fertile lands of the south west where the finest varieties of Egyptian long staple cotton are grown suffer from a shortage of water. According to press reports the next five years will witness the building of a huge 607 km canal which will carry the surplus waters of the Amu Darya to the southwest to augment the water resources in the basins of the Murghab and Tejen rivers. The canal will be laid across the Black sands of the Kara Kum desert. Work on this canal is to be started this year. The first section of this tremendous job calls for the excavation of 35,000,000 cu. m of earth to build up canal embankments. The canal will carry up to 250 cu m. of water every second or some 7,000 ~~million~~ million cu. m. annually — sufficient to irrigate 500,000 acres. 217 million rubles have been already assigned for this project.

The Tash Keprî reservoir with a capacity of one million cu. m. , the Kolhozben't reservoir, the Karabekaul canal and the complete overhaul of the irrigation system of the Murghab basin.

One of the largest water reservoirs in the republic is to be constructed near the old fortress of Kara Kala. This project should provide water from the Tejen river to irrigate 60,000 hectares.

Victory Plan Target: There shall be put into operation electrical power stations with a capacity of 33,000 kw including a steam turbine electrical station with a capacity of 8000 kw and a small hydro electric stations with an aggregate capacity of 4000 kw.

The steam turbine station is probably the one reported under construction at Ashkhabad.

NEWS ONLY

November-December 1946

Current Sessions in Russian Central Asia of the Supreme Soviets

Turkmenistan:

The opening on the 20th July of the 11 Session of the Turkmen Republic was reported in the first issue of our Bulletin. The opening session was addressed by Sukhan, Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Turkmen SSR.

Press reports on the sittings

Central Asian Railways/ Turkmenistan:

The Mukry-Gaurdag railway project is referred to in connection with the construction of the Gaurdag Chemical Combine Works. This short line of 58 kms. will cut across the south eastern part of the Kara Kum desert connecting Gaurdag, east of Kerki with Mukry station on the Kerki-Termes line and with the Amu Darya river system. Simultaneously with the construction of the railway, a water pipeline is to be laid to provide water for Gaurdag from the Amu Darya. The new line is of local importance and will serve the Gaurdag enterprises which are to be completed by 1950 on the western slopes of the Kuh-i-Tang mountains in a region of sulphur deposits estimated at two million tons.

Civil Air /Turkmenistan

Ashkhabad is reported to be connected by airlines and railway communications with all the capitals of the Russian Central Asian Republics. The air line, linking Ashkhabad and the desert sulphur mines north of Ashkhabad along which route airplanes carry water on the outward flight returning to Ashkhabad with loads of sulphur, has been specially mentioned. Before the war it took twenty days to cross by camel the desert from Ashkhabad to the oases of Tashauz, and now the air trip across the Kara Kum takes only three hours.

Saksaul seeds will be sown by aircraft for the first time in the sandy districts of Turkmenistan, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan to stem the shifting dunes and create local bases for fuel.

ADVANCE ON THE KARA KUM DESERT

Soviet observers recently described the latest five year development plan for Turkmenistan, whose people have been endlessly grappling with the encroachments of the desert, as a plan for the further invasion and conquest of the Kara Kum desert. The extension of the area of cultivated land through reclamation has always been the cherished dream of the oases dwellers of Turkmenistan whose present area of cultivation is only about one per cent of the total area of the republic. The territory of Turkmenistan (484 thousand sq. miles) may be larger than some states in Europe, but it includes the sandy Kara Kum the largest desert in the whole of the Soviet Union. The vigorous advance on this desert in Soviet days began some time ago but started in earnest only since the termination of the War. It embraces, in the words of Russian enthusiastic observers, the entire population of the republic from the shores of the Caspian to the forbidding

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Kuh-i-Tang mountains and from the steppes of the Aral sea to Kushka, the advance post of Russia in the southern most corner of Turkmenistan.

A total of 1,600 million rubles has now been earmarked to implement the various projects of the Victory plan and a considerable part of this budget assignment is to be spent on irrigation. This "advance" on the desert is to be conducted along two fronts; on the "industrial" front aiming at the development of the huge natural, still most undeveloped, resources of mineral wealth to achieve which scores of scientific expeditions have been sent out into the desert, searching and probing for new fields of oil, polymetallic ores, and pastures, and along the "water" front calling for an intensification of the search for water through field surveys of underground sources and the construction of canals projected before or since the war.

Expansion of the desert industries

In the Western Kara Kum the search is mostly directed towards the expansion of the Nebid Dagh oil fields, of Chaleken island oil and osocerite and of the chemical riches of the Kara-Bogaz-Gol district which has vast sodium sulphate deposits of great importance to the USSR paper, glass, dye, and metallurgical industries. The Victory plan calls for the maximum development of the sodium sulphate reserves in this area estimated at several milliard tons and of the many other chemical components found in this district. In 1918, Lenin first directed the attention of Russia's chemical industries to the importance of the Kara Bogaz Gol fields and the necessity for their rapid and vigorous development. A decade later in 1929, a powerful chemical trust, the so-called "Sulphate Trust" was founded for their development. Since then the production of sodium sulphates has greatly increased. In 1943 the Trust created a new industry in this district for the extraction of epsomite, an important ingredient in the production of synthetic rubber and in the leather, textile and paint dye industries. Other processed chemicals are magnesium/chloride, magnesium compounds as also bromides.

In the South Eastern part of the Kara Kum the efforts of the Soviet industrialists are concentrated on the development of a huge Chemical Combine in the vicinity of Mount Gaurdag for the production of sulphur and of superphosphates to meet the needs in mineral fertilizers of Central Asian agriculture. Gaurdag sulphur has long been mined on a small scale for the manufacture of matches. The existing works were actually built 12 years ago but will now be dwarfed by the new chemical enterprises, popularly known as the Great Gaurdag Project, which call for the construction of three new plants to produce sulphur, sulphuric acid and super phosphates. According to press reports the new sulphur works there will have a greatly capacity than all the existing sulphur plants in the Soviet Union taken together. The sulphuric acid plant is being put up to meet the requirements of the superphosphates mills which will obtain their supply of phosphates from the Kara Tau deposits near Chinkent. By 1950 they should produce annually 50,000 tons of superphosphates.

Mount Gaurdag rising in the midst of a waterless desert is one of the hottest spots in the USSR with a summer temp. reaching 65° C. The nearest railway station at Mukry is 60 km away on the Ashkhabad line through which the mines are to be linked with the Central Asian railway network and the Amu Darya river system. Near Mukry station is also the nearest source of water for Gaurdag where water has to be hauled by truck. The development of the Gaurdag industrial base, therefore, demands first of all the construction of a branch railway line and the laying of a water pipeline and

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conditions constitute an exceedingly difficult job. Water remains the biggest problem as Gaurdag workers have to get along at present with the meager ration of four liters of water per day. Materials for the water pipeline are, however arriving and by the beginning of next year the supply of water should be adequate. Work on the branch railway will be finished in 1947. The power requirements of the construction job and later of the plants are to be met by the installation of a 12,000 kw power station.

The sulphur veins at Gaurdag are reported to be as much as 45 meters thick and in places rise almost to the surface. Mining will be done both underground and by open cutting methods.

The project is a joint enterprise of the two republics of Kazakhstan and Turkmenia, as the plant though in Turkmenistan, will process Kazakhstan's phosphates.

Sulphur produced at Gaurdag will be the cheapest in the USSR. The same fields are also likely to yield polymetallic ores and rare minerals.

The Gaurdag Chemical Works are now in their first stages of erection and their successful construction and working will to a great extent depend on the speedy completion of the Bukry-Gaurdag branch line and on providing an adequate supply of water from the Amu Darya.

In the Central part of the Kara Kum, further development awaits the "Sulphur Mines" in the heart of the desert in a locality called Kirk-Chulba (40 mounds) which have been in operation some time and the Darvas Sulphur works 75 km north of the old mine.

The construction of a sulphur ore-concentration plant at the mines in a district of shifting sands in the heart of the desert, 250 km from Ashkhabad was completed in 1945. The mines are connected with the outside world by air and motor transport. The new ore concentration plant is reported to be of considerable importance to the continued working of the mines as it makes it possible now to use the low quality waste which was formerly discarded and had accumulated in great quantities. The development of the Kara Kum sulphur deposits in the past has been greatly hampered by their remoteness and inaccessibility and by the absence of water. One of the first jobs under the new development scheme was, therefore the construction of an airbase for planes carrying supplies to the mines and sulphur on their return trip to Ashkhabad. The construction of the ore-concentration plant was completed, as reported, in the record time of 15 months. The question of water has also been solved by the discovery of a subterranean water bearing layer about three kilometers from the plant site.

The water was first found unsuitable for "floatation" purposes, but this difficulty has not been overcome by installing water filtering equipment. Near the mines a large settlement of brick buildings has now sprung up. It boasts of a club, hospital, school, and a radio station. All supplies, however, as before have to be brought from Ashkhabad with which the mines are connected by a regular air service. The trip to Ashkhabad takes 30 to 40 minutes.

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At Darvaz, 75 km north east of the sulphur mines, further deposits are being surveyed and are being partly worked. Surveys are being conducted there also in search of water.

Kara Kum Irrigation Projects

Present irrigation projects in Turkmenistan include plans for the completion of the Tejen Water Reservoir for which a further 33 million rubles grant has been assigned with a dam 2½ km wide and 25-26 km long, to irrigate in the Tejen oasis an total of 60,000 hectares. A minor project in the north of Turkmenistan is the construction of the 51 km long Kiri Kis canal in the Kunya Urgench district to irrigate 12,000 hectares. The greatest project for the reclamation of the desert is, however, the projected "Great Kara Kum Canal which will traverse in most of its sections the desert, carrying the waters of the Amu Darya to the Murghab and Tejen oases and further west to the smaller rivers of the Kopet Dagh. This new canal will irrigate over 200,000 hectares. Already the completion of its first section of 437 km in 1951 will partly embody the persistent dream of the Turkmen people of reclaiming the desert. The canal will also be used as a transport artery connecting the Gaurding and Ruh-i-Tang industrial districts with the agricultural settlements along the Murghab and Tejen rivers.

The part played by water in the daily life of Turkmenistan's population has been thus described by a Soviet journalist. (omitted)

The Kara Kum project has had a long history. In Soviet times its construction was first discussed in 1925 at the first Soviet session in Turkmenistan. Expeditions were sent out into the desert and several projects were eventually presented for consideration, one of which called for the alignment of the new canal along the Darya Lyk, the supposed old river bed of the Amu Darya and for the diversion of the Amu Darya waters to the Caspian. This project was, however soon abandoned in view of its many insurmountable difficulties among which the most serious was that this old bed of the Amu Darya in its course to the Caspian traverses the pear-shaped Sarikamish depression estimated to have a capacity of 200 cu km of water. According to the most optimistic calculations of the authors of this project it would have taken five years to fill this depression with water. Opponents of the project predicted that it would take 17 years. A second version of this project provided for the construction of a diversion canal along the edge of the Sarikamish depression. Though both these projects were finally condemned it became obvious in the course of these surveys and deliberations that the canal could not be aligned across the northern stretches of the Kara Kum but only in the south of the desert by utilizing the Kalif Unboi former river valley. It is this southern project which is now being implemented.

The year 1929 witnessed the completion of the Bassaga-Kerki canal which irrigates the Kerki oasis. Soon after the opening of this canal the spare waters of the Amu Darya, having passed through the Bassaga-Kerki canal were allowed to flow into the Kalif Unboi itself. By 1931 water from the Bassaga-Kerki canal had penetrated into the Kara Kum to a depth of 65 km. In 1940 a decision was made to disburse further the waters of the canal and, should this project succeed, to extend the canal to supply water to the Murghab and Tejen oases. The outbreak of the war interfered with this project. Blue prints for the canal by that time had already, however, been completed in elaborate details and its

broad outlines considerable streamlined and simplified. According to the final project there will be no new dams to construct for the intake of water from the Amu Darya, as the initial stage of the canal will remain the existing Bassaga-Kerki canal which now supplies water as far as the Kelif Usbol. The Kelif Usbol itself will be turned into a gigantic lake with a capacity of 350 million cu. feet of water. Passing through the Kelif Usbol reservoir the canal will thrust itself into the desert and crossing 213 km of desert lands will reach the railway line. After crossing the railway the canal will penetrate the arid lands of the Merv and Bairam Ali districts and not far away from Merv will join the flow of the Murghab river. ~~Water~~ Water provided jointly by the new canal and the Murghab will then continue to flow as far as the Egri-Guzar Dam and traversing the desert will join the Tejen river basin. The total length of the canal from the Amu Darya to the Tejen will be 606 km.

"The construction job on the new canal is divided into two sections: the first from the Amu Darya to the Murghab basin 37 km long, the second from the Murghab to the Tejen adding another 169 kms. The Kara Kum canal will thus be longer than the famous Colorado River Canal and the Stalin Great Ferghana Canal in Uzbekistan. "

"When the first section is completed the outflow per second from the Amu Darya will be 111 cu meters, the second section will increase it to 259 c.m. of water. In the course of a year more than 4,000,000,000 cu meters of water will thus be drawn from the river and subsequently 7,000,000,000.

Underground Desert Waters.

"The completion of a chart of underground water embracing an area totalling over 110,000 sq km in the central and southeastern districts of the Kara Kum desert and in the area of the Kopet Dagh has been completed by the Turkmen Geological Survey Administration after many years of work. The chart is based on field research data and will be of immense importance to the economic development of Turkmenistan, as a desert totalling some 350 sq. km in area comprises a large part of its territory.

May - June 1947

Polling Day in Russia Central Asia

We have more information of the first stages of the election campaign in Turkmenia than in the republics from the resolution of the Plenary Session of the regional communist party held in December last year at Ashkhabad. This resolution among other things records that certain regional party committees had failed to lead the growing political activity of the Turkmen masses, were but slowly taking up political work among electors and had even failed to appoint chairmen to head publicity committees. Visual propaganda was also poorly organized. There were delays in publishing electioneering literature, there was also a shortage of artistic placards. Moreover, only inadequate steps had been taken for the distribution of publicity material through distribution and trading centers of government trusts operating in Turkmenia. Even later than the date of this resolution reports were still coming through of electioneering materials being late in reaching

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the Tashauz and Terki districts.

234 candidates were duly registered for election among whom were Stalin (Ashkhabad), Molotov (Merv), Beriya (Chardshou), Zhdanov (Krasnovodsk) and Andreev (Tashauz). All the candidates were elected. The composition of the new Supreme Soviet is now as follows: Turkmens 154, Russians, Ukrainians and White Russians 54, the remainder: other nationalities. Of the deputies 46 are laborers, 67 kolkhos workers, 2 are heroes of the Great War. The social status of the rest has not so far been defined though among them there is a sprinkling of intellectuals, professors, doctors, teachers, etc.

A striking feature of the elections, as recorded by the Moscow Press was mobile publicity and propaganda columns. Electioneering vans were sent across part of the Kara Kum along the route: Ashkhabad, Merv, Ashkhabad (950 km) and over the route Ashkhabad-Kizyl Arvat-Ashkhabad. These flying columns were manned by professional propagandists, poets, actors, etc. and their leaders were instructed to complete the tours within 8 days.

Turkestan Military District

News items referring to military training in the T.M.D. do not often appear in the Moscow press not excluding the Red Star. The little that recently came to our notice is summarized below.

An October telegram from Ashkhabad reported the completion there of a 250 km cavalry star raid by NKVD units from a number of frontier posts. On their way to Ashkhabad some of these cavalry details had to cross the sandy barhans of the Kara Kum, others the gorges and passes of the Kopet Dagh mountains and some others the subtropical areas of the Sumbar and Atrek. They were due in Ashkhabad to take part in the regional annual equestrian and sports competitions.

Another item describes manoeuvres conducted in mountainous areas by an artillery brigade. On this march the brigade had to cover 30 kms. of mountain terrain in four hours and to deploy on the termination of its march in support of advancing infantry. The brigade was first discovered by enemy aircraft in a mountain gorge on its way to the rendezvous. Speeds were consequently increased and larger distances maintained between units. During the second half of the march the brigade came across an enemy tank formation. Guns took up positions and tow cars went under cover. In the final stage of its march the brigade had to overcome difficult gradients. Due to negligence on the part of one of the gun teams the time table at this stage of the exercises was upset by a delay of 15 minutes. On arrival at destination the brigade set itself the task of preparing fire positions in support of the impending infantry attack. To economize time targets were marked by observing burst centers. Observations of the bursts were completed within thirty minutes after which fire was first concentrated on a hill behind which enemy reserves were in hiding. The despatch ends by a statement that had other methods than direct observation been used it would have taken six to eight hours of daylight to prepare for the subsequent artillery barrage.

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Preparations for winter training in artillery units were well on their way at the end of November by which time brigade bases were well equipped with training requisites and classes opened for specialized and general training. Class equipment, among other things, included placards, miniature artillery ranges and plastic models. Officer's small arms and ranges for rifle, carbine and automatic arms practice had also been laid out.

Night marches, a feature of the Stalin Tank School, were undertaken with the object of teaching officers attending courses to handle their initial starting positions under cover of darkness at prescribed speeds and intervals with all lights extinguished. The march was successful and the tanks reached battle stations without mishap. The only error in judgement discovered by the staff officer attached to the unit was that through an oversight the unit commander had failed to detail sentries for the night watch. Young officers had also to be admonished on the necessity of maintaining under war conditions complete blackouts during night raids.

General I. K. Petrov, Officer Commanding the Turkestan Military District, in a recent interview made certain statements on training methods and conditions in his district which may be of interest. According to his introductory remarks at this interview units under his command in carrying out orders of the Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces of the USSR had entered upon their new year of training even better qualified than last year. The material base for training in his district had considerably improved as new rifle and artillery ranges and assault training grounds were now completed and necessary training equipment supplied in accordance with modern battle requirements.

Officers and non-commissioned officers together had done some preparatory training which had enabled them to evolve uniform ideas on the training of the rank and file. Soldiers under his command were to be taught only such battle practices as are required under actual war conditions and tactical training was to be carried out under complex conditions in all weathers and at all times of day and night. The basic technical equipment for these exercises, in his opinion was quite adequate and there was no lack of what he called "imitation means" to create the semblance of battle conditions. Special care was to be given to the selection of localities for tactical training which were to be chosen in such a manner as to prevent any "simplification" or alleviation of conditions under which actual tactical exercises were to be carried out.

Much attention would be given to training troops for road and cross country marches under conditions resembling actual warfare. To create such conditions considerable assistance could be provided by former combatants of the Great War. Firing instruction was to be intensified and selected marksmen chosen for the formation of special snipers units. General Petrov confidently expected to have a large number of snipers trained before the advent of summer.

General Petrov was prepared to admit that there were shortcomings in his command which had to be overcome. For instance, demands made by officers and NCO's upon the rank and file were not up to the mark and disclosed an inclination of the part of the commanders to be lenient and too much time was wasted on fatigues and routine non military duties. He disclosed that in future officers were to be allowed more leisure for private military studies

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and that a daily regime was to be established giving them ample time for such studies. Officers were to be relieved of duties which could be adequately carried out by NCOs and this in his opinion should automatically raise the authority of NCOs among the rank and file. Training of recruits in its first stages was to be carried out by NCOs under general supervision of officers only but NCOs were to be freed of petty control by their immediate superiors. To raise their standards, NCOs were to attend lectures and talks in addition to routine instruction.

General Petrov's interview was given on Feb. 1 and curiously enough ended with his assurance that polling day to the Supreme Soviets in the Republics of the USSR (which was held in mid Feb.) would coincide with a determined drive in the Turkestan Military District for higher levels of fighting and political training.

Changes in Administrative Districts

The Law of Changes of and Supplements to the Text of the Constitution of the USSR has effected certain changes in Turkestan. Article 29a of the present Law abolishes two administrative districts in Turkmenia, viz. Krasnovodsk and Kerki.

April-June, 1948

RADIO

During the successive five year plans broadcasting has developed at a fast rate in Turkmenistan. When the first pyatiletka was inaugurated there was only one broadcasting station in Turkmenistan, one transmitting center, and 430 radio receiving points but before the first pyatiletka came to an end 12 transmitting centers had already been erected and the number of receiving centers rose to 3000. During the second five year plan there was further development of the local broadcasting network in the country. During this period the number of stations increased two and a half times and 14 new centers were set up with the result that the radio penetrated into the remotest villages of the republic.

The pre-war years of the third pyatiletka saw feverish activities in developing the radio network in Turkmenistan. The achievements during this period exceeded the sum total of achievements during the first two pyatiletkas. Even during the days of the war work on development of the broadcasting service in the country did not stop and new radio centers and thousands of new receiving points were established and the construction of a second broadcasting station was taken in hand.

Under the post war five year plan there are still wider prospects for the development of radio in the republic. During this period it is estimated that 15 thousand new receiving points will be established, 11 relay ng centers will be created.

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The aim is to introduce the radio in the remotest villages and centers. Very low power stations will be erected. The radio receiving network of the republic will be growing during the years of this pyatiletka at the rate of 75% over and above that achieved in the pre-war period. There are already 60 radio transmitting centers of the Ministry of Communications and the number of radio receiving centers has risen to 32,000 including 4,600 in rural areas.

It is intended to establish during the current year 4,000 new receiving points and to erect a new transmitting center for serving the sub-division. Besides this seven transmitting centers of the republic will have more powerful equipment. The Ministry of Communication has earmarked millions of rubles to be spent on the development of broadcasting in the republic.

At present the capital of Soviet Turkmenistan has at its disposal two powerful broadcasting stations. The daily program in Turkmenian and Russian, embracing subjects of republican and local interest is conducted for more than 20 hours a day. It is claimed that news on the most important events in the country and abroad is purveyed every day on an extensive scale. Besides giving out the latest reports of the views of newspapers on subjects of common interest to the Soviet Union as a whole, the latest reports about the republic and reports of interest to particular districts and divisions and towns are also put out. One of the most important features of broadcasting consists of talks and statements on various socio political questions. Popular scientific talks are also given frequently. But most of the time, to be exact more than half of the time the program is taken up by smax. The most diversified formsetc.

It was reported in the first week of March that for more than a month and a half local transmissions were not given in the most important industrial centers of the radio, namely Erashovodsk. It was also complained that during this period transmissions at Nebit Dagh, Kaakha, Ilyali were irregular and that in the Bairam Ali, Turkmen-Ali, Takhta Bazar and Kizyl Arvat areas local transmissions were without any plan.

It was further alleged that although the state expended large sums of money for the development of the radio network these sums were in no case not used properly and effectively. In a number of cases sums of money and material were expended for erecting new stations, while earlier ones were neglected. The radio centers of Masean Buli, Kaakha, and Kirovsk were accused of not fulfilling the plan for the construction of new transmitting "points". In Tashauz district instead of setting up new transmitting "points", 119 already established were dismantled.

The total number of receiving sets in the republic was estimated at 3,075. But even out of this number practically half were not in working order inasmuch as organizations responsible for their maintenance did not import batteries and valves in sufficient quantities.

The Press

Before the Revolution the percentage of literacy in Turkmenistan was only 5 and this being so, there were naturally no newspapers in the Turkmen language. In those pre-Revolutionary days only two newspapers in the Russian language were published named, "Zakaspelskoe Obozrenie" and "Ashkhabad". But since then there has been a steady rise in the number of newspapers in the Republic. At present 5 republican, 6 district, 42 sub-divisional

and two city newspapers are published. Out of the ~~thirty-two~~ total number of newspapers published in the republic 50 are in the Turkmen language. Besides these a very large number of wall newspapers are also put out. Judging from past and present trends it appears that the Turkmenian press has wide prospects of growth and development in the future. Newspapers have penetrated into the remotest corners of the republic. Practically every sub-division has its own printed paper. Big industrial enterprises of the republic such as the Kiyi Arvat Locomotive and Wagon Repair Workshops the Ami Darya Steamship Co. etc. have their own organs.

The newspapers of Turkmenistan like those of the rest of the Soviet Union propagate the principles of bolshevism among the masses, mobilize the people for the selfless work in the cause of strengthening the foundations of the Soviet system, and inculcate on all workers the spirit of absolute loyalty to the Lenin Stalin Party. The press renders great assistance to the Party and Soviet organs in conducting an economic-political campaign. The newspapers are a great help in popularising and organising "socialist competition" and they play a great part in the political and "cultural" education of the workers.

It is however, admitted that all the newspapers of the republic do not tackle the tasks assigned to them. For example, the pages of many newspapers specially district and sub-divisional ones, are said to be full of dry uninteresting material and very often errors, including printing mistakes, creep in. The ideological contents and the get up of many newspapers fall far short of the standard laid down by the Party and the government.

It is urged that the ideological and the literacy standard of Turkmen papers must needs be raised. To achieve this end it is said that it is necessary to write in a clear, succinct and popular style about the life and affairs of the Soviet people so that even a short item would be read with interest and inspire patriotic feelings among workers, collective farmers and the intelligentsia. Among the obligations of the press in Turkmenistan the following are said to be very important, namely "effecting a radical improvement in enlightening party life, carrying out cultural and educational work among the inhabitants of cities and villages and conducting propaganda on Marxism-Leninism." It is insisted that the newspapers must intensify their efforts to elucidate the implication of ideological work and to consistently inculcate on the workers of Soviet Turkmenistan the duty of their being loyal to the socialist fatherland and to the Lenin Stalin Party, to carry on the struggle against the vestiges of bourgeois ideology in the minds of the people and against subservience to the widespread capitalist culture of the west which has its adherents in a certain section of the Turkmen intelligentsia.

It is said that the tasks confronting the press in Turkmenistan cannot be accomplished by the editorial staff alone. Newspapers should, it is held, lean on the support of the extensive aktiv of worker and invite them to cooperate in its work and train up cadres of worker and peasant correspondents.

In order that the press may be able to fulfil its obligations it is held that those actually working in a newspaper office must constantly raise their own political, educational, and cultural standards as well as their technical qualifications.

Electrification/Rural

From the earlier reports to hand it appears that ~~the~~ electrification has

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not made much headway in the republic. According to an Izvestia report dated August 12, 1947, the first to start the construction of a hydro-electric station were three collective farms of Begir which was expected to be completed before the 30th anniversary of the October Revolution. Another station was reported to be under construction in the Khivalat aul of the Kaakha rayon and altogether ten such stations were scheduled to be built last year. Another Izvestia report dated January 6, 1948 mentioned the trial opening of the new Kolkhoz hydro-electric station at Begir. Presumably this is the same station which was expected to be ready for use before the 30th anniversary of the October Revolution as reported in the earlier message. The report further stated that 9 hydro electric stations which were under construction were expected to be completed in 1948 and that construction work on 40 more power stations would be taken in hand in 1948.

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UZBEKISTAN**SECRET**September-October 1946**CONTROL**Irrigation**U. S. OFFICIALS ONLY**This material procured by
Central Intelligence Agency

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"There shall be brought under cultivation by irrigation development 173,000 hectares of land and measures shall be carried out to improve the water supply and the condition of existing irrigation areas. (Para 45 "Victory" Plan Irrigation Projects).

Despite the enormous importance of the Ferghana valley for cotton growing only half of its territory has been so far irrigated. The new Five Year Plan provides for the completion of a number of irrigation projects discontinued since the outbreak of the war. Among the largest of these is the Katta Kurgan reservoir on the ~~Amu Darya~~ Zeravshan river with a total capacity of 600,000,000 cu. m. of water. This reservoir is popularly referred to as the "Uzbek" sea.

The Zeravshan river, originally a tributary of the Amu Darya, now ends some 20 km. from the latter at a point where it has given up all its water to the farm fields and the arid desert.

Electrical Power Stations.

Existing Stations. : According to a foreign observer there are in Uzbekistan apart from the Chirchik hydro-electric station (on a tributary of the Syr Darya) about 60 others, mostly built since 1929.

Victory Plan Target " There shall be built and put into operation electric power stations with a capacity aggregating 303,000 kw. including hydro-electric stations of 266,000 kw. capacity". (Para 43) . " In the industries under the republic's jurisdiction there shall be put into operation municipal power stations with an aggregate capacity of 10,900 kw" (Para 44) .

Stations under construction Soviet Press news report the construction at present in Uzbekistan of eleven hydro-electric stations. Another source mentions only ten.

(1) The "Parkhad" Plant-Uzbekistan's "Dnieprges". Of fifteen million cu. m. of excavation work nine million have been completed, of 270,000 cu. m. of concrete and iron work 120,000 also an 18 meter dam and a "derivation" canal 13½ km. long. This station is to be opened by the end of 1946 and will constitute a great step forward towards the electrification of Uzbekistan. The station has been named after the legendary hero Parkhad whose name figures in old Uzbek folklore songs.

(2) Two hydro-electric stations in Namangan of which the construction of No. 2 station has been 80 % completed.

(3) The "Dargom" Canal hydro-electric stations. The Tash Gulyan station was completed already in December 1945. A new station will be constructed on the same canal at Hishran to supply power to Samarkand

(4) "Sharikhan" Canal hydro-electric stations. Six power stations are to be constructed along this canal to supply current to Marghellan, Ferghana and Andizhan cities. One of these was put into operation during the war.

The Ak Kavak No. 2 Power Station This station on the Boz Su canal not far from the village of Troitskoe was opened on the 14th of July 1946 reported "the plant is 100% automatically operated".

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Requirements of the Tashkent Industrial District. Eleven stations are at present under construction, however, even after their coming into operation a great shortage in electrical power will be experienced in this district. Representatives of Uzbekistan urged Moscow at the last session of the Supreme Soviet to increase the capital grants for electrical power stations by 195 million rubles with which to construct four additional hydro-electrical power stations, one in the "Golodnaya" Steppe area and three stations (Nos. 4,5,6) in the Boz Su Canal with an additional aggregate capacity of 40,000 kw. also of a fuel power station at Angren with a capacity of 35,000 kw. According to the same source the requirements of the Tashkent industrial area in electrical power by 1950 will amount to a total of 330,000 kw whereas the total capacity of the existing stations and of those under construction will be only 254,000 kw.

A special request was also made for funds for the construction of an electrical power plant in the growing industrial area of Uch Kurgan for which as yet no funds have been earmarked.

General : In increase in cotton planting and the growth of Uzbekistan industries under the "Five Year Victory plan obviously demand construction on a large scale of electrical power stations. It has been estimated that with the completion of the new power stations, now under construction, the total output of electricity in Uzbekistan will reach 2,135,000 kw of which nearly one third of a million of kw. will be supplied by the new projects. The situation in Uzbekistan seems therefore entirely different from that which existed at the time of the construction of the Dnieper Dam. There supply preceded demand and industrial development followed on the introduction of cheap power in the district. In the Tashkent industrial area the supply of current even towards the end of the Victory Plan period may still lag behind the actual demand.

Uzbekistan Cotton:

Uzbekistan, the richest and most economically advanced republic of Russian Central Asia, contains within its frontiers not less than two-thirds of the railway mileage of Central Asia, three fifths of its population, all of the larger cities and produces four fifths of its cotton as well as four fifths of its ~~manufacture~~ total industrial output. The 2½ millions of irrigated lands in the valleys and oases of Uzbekistan out of a total of 7 million acres under crops in 1938 of which half were on irrigated lands, yield over 60% of Soviet cotton, the production of cotton having been expanded to such an extent that the Soviet Union has been able to eliminate cotton from its list of foreign imports. In the past the area under cotton cultivation was enlarged mainly by irrigation. Thus in the period from 1924 to 1939 along more than 300,000 hectares (one hectare equals 2.47 acres) were added to the cotton area. The final target of cotton cultivation in the 8 year cotton production plan (1946-1953) has now been placed at 956,000 hectares though the emphasis is more on the increase in the yield per hectare than in the expanding of the area itself. It may be of interest that the highest crop yield in Uzbekistan per hectare was recently reported at 46.8 centners of 8 centners above the prewar level.

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1913 1941 1946 1947 1953

	1913	1941	1946	1947	1953
Areas under cultivation in thousands of hectares.					
a) collective farms	---	---	790,0	860,0	960,0
b) state farms			36,0	40,0	40,0
TOTAL	423,5	927,8	815,0	900,0	1000,0

Average yield in cnetners
per hectare.

a) collective farms.	14,9	16,8	24,7
b) State Farms	17,5	22,0	32,0
Average yield	15,0	17,0	25,0

Total yield in thousands
of tons

516,4 1,718,0

Delivers of Raw cotton
to the state

a) collective farms	1100,0	1377,0	2280,0
b) State Farms	60,0	83,0	120,0
TOTAL	516,4	1718,0	1160,0 1460,0 2400,0

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4.

The above figures disclose not only the enormous growth of cotton cultivation in Uzbekistan since 1913 but also the setback experience during the war when Soviet industry was no more in a position to supply cotton growers with new machinery and/or sufficient quantities of fertilizers for the maintenance of cotton growing. Plans for 1942 and 1943 were thus unfulfilled and part of the cultivated area in Uzbekistan actually remained fallow. Over the same period there was also a drop in the yield per hectare.

The necessity for taking steps for the rehabilitation and development of cotton growing in Uzbekistan was emphasized this year in the directives issued by the Central Government on Feb. 2. Briefly these directives demand the restoration of the pre-war level of production mainly through an increase in the average yield under cotton cultivation itself in the course of the eight years between 1946 and 1953 is to be expanded only from 815,000 to 1,000,000 hectares.

The keystone for this gigantic increase in cotton production is thus "increased yields" for while the cotton area in the course of the eight year period, is expected to expand by one fifth, yields are to go up 70%.

The February directive provides for the construction of new irrigation works, land reclamation measures and the supply to collective and state farms of mineral fertilizers and machines for which purpose new chemical plants are to be set up in Uzbekistan to produce ammonia (sulphate) nitrates, and superphosphates. Among these new plants and development schemes may be mentioned the following:

1. Enlargement of the Chirchik Electro-Chemical "Combine" to enable it to produce 120,000 tons of ammonia and 230,000 tons of ammonium nitrate (Ammonia nitrates)..
2. The construction of the Uch-Kurgan works for the production of nitrate fertilizers.
3. The completion in 1949 of the Samarkand Superphosphate Works to produce 200,000 tons of superphosphates and 70,000 of sulphuric acid.
4. The expansion of the Kuvasai Chemical Works for the production of calcium arsenate and arsenite.

The total demand in mineral fertilizers in Uzbekistan in 1953 is estimated at 1,500,000 tons, the total production of cotton fabrics at 6 milliard meters and of cotton seed oils 200,000 tons.

The 8 year plan of cotton growing in Uzbekistan also envisages the construction of an automobile repair and assembly plant, which is later to be converted into an automobile construction plant, the improvement of roads in the cotton producing areas, the development of irrigation and electrical supply facilities and the creation of additional cadres of mechanics, agricultural specialists, etc. etc.

The Kokand Superphosphate Works.

The target for superphosphates production in Uzbekistan under the five year plan has been fixed at 300,000 tons per annum to achieve which two chemical plants are to be put into operation by 1950. The present annual output of the Kokand Chemical Works of 100,000 tons is to be doubled by 1950. Press comments on the plan stress that the production of high grade superphosphates is of extreme importance for the development of cotton growing in Uzbekistan.

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The Uzbekistan Metallurgical Works

There is very little information about the expansion of the "Uzbekistan" Metallurgical Works, sections of which are already in operation, apart from the fact that, for their further development 198 million rubles have now been set aside.

Road and Bridge Construction

Press reports confirm the completion of the Ak Mechet road in the Dekhanabad district of the Kashka-Darya region. This road in the Dekhanabad district of Kashka-Darya was completed thanks to the efforts of 3000 "Kolkhozniki" recruited from local villages. It will connect Ak Mechet with the regional center of Karshi.

At the recent Moscow session of the supreme Soviet Uzbekistan deputies asked for an increase in the allotment for road and bridge construction from 16 to 57½ million rubles. Their request is motivated by the expected three fold increase in freight traffic by 1950, which calls for prompt repairs to existing roads and bridges and the construction of new ones.

Foreign Visitors at the 25th Anniversary Celebrations of the Tashkent University (December 1945)

The Afghan Delegation consisted of Md. Jamas a departmental Chief of the Ministry of Education, the poet Sarvari Goya and Abdullai Habibi, Dean of the Faculty of Arts and President of the Pushtu Academy. Iran was represented by Siyasi, Rector of Tehran University, Professor Dr. Keshavarz, member of the Majlis and the well known writer Hidayat. There were also two representatives from Sinkiang Province in China.

At the session Siyasi presented to the Tashkent University a collection of scientific works by members of the Tehran University and a manuscript of the famous Iranian poet of the 13th Century Jalal-ud-Din Rumi.

November-December 1946Current Sessions in Russian Central Asia of the Supreme Soviets.

The 1946 Summer Sessions of the Supreme Councils (Soviets) of the five Russian Central Asian Republics are now over. The proceedings at all these sessions followed the same pattern and an identical agenda which called for the endorsement of the five year plan, the adoption of the 1946 budget, the ratification of the budget report for 1945 and 1946 sessions. The opening of most of the sessions coincided with the news of Kalinin's death which was referred to in all the Assemblies. The first item for discussion of the agenda consisted of reports submitted by the respective State Planning Commissions on the provisions of the five year (1946-1950) Plan.

The 8th Session of the Uzbek Republic opened at Tashkent on the 30 August and followed the same agenda. The session was opened by Abdulaev, Chairman of the State Planning Commission (Gosplan), who read a report on the provisions of the five year plan as applied to Uzbekistan. In an article contributed by the same Abdulaev to the Moscow Izvestia published during the session, mention is made of the further development of Uzbekistan as the main cotton base of the USSR and of the improvement of methods of cotton agriculture through the further mechanization of cultivation and the increased use of fertilizers.

reach 995,000 hectares by 1950 and the gross output of raw cotton 2,139 thousand tons, necessitating a further enlargement of areas sown with cotton and lucerne. Already in 1947 the cotton area is to be restored to its pre-war level. Abdulaev's article stresses that in the course of the next eight years (1947-1953) mechanical means of cotton harvesting should grow from 5% to 50%. The output of Uzbekistan Textile Mills during the same period is to increase from 107,000,000 to 170,000,000 meters. Other press news contain glowing reports of the opening of the "Uzbek Metallurgical Works". An eleven fold increase in the coal output and a fivefold increase of Uzbekistan's oil production are mentioned as aims of these basic industries during the five year plan.

Press reports on the sittings of the Supreme Soviets of the five Central Asian Republics, while may be incomplete, concern mostly the economic development of Russian Central Asia and fail to enlarge on general questions relating to political, racial, or social problems affecting the life of these republics vis a vis their co-ordinating center at Moscow. Cultural and educational matters seem also to be in the background. Likewise the questions of "cadres" to man the growing need for specialists ~~in the various branches of the national economy~~ and technicians in the rapidly growing regional industries is scarcely mentioned. The emphasis throughout is on industrial attainments and the further development of the national economy of these remote regions. The rapid tempo of their industrial development, if maintained, as it is likely to be, may place these republics in the not too distant future in a position to influence by sheer weight of their resources and their advance in technological and ideological equipment the destinies of their more backward neighbors. (Iran, Afghanistan, and Western China).

Civil Air

According to press reports planes fly regularly from Tashkent to all of the regional centers of Uzbekistan. More than 50 landing strips have been recently opened in the distant regions of Uzbekistan, among these one in the mountains of Ferghana at an altitude of 1,200 meters.

A daily service to Tamdy Bulak in the center of the Kizyl Kum desert seems to be maintained. In the summer this is an all weather line.

Civil Pilot Alekseev on his way to Nukus, capital of the Kara Kalpak ASSR to avoid mountain ranges recently flew from Ashkhabad right across the desert, carrying as freight two motor cars.

Aircraft will spray orchards in the South and cotton plantations in Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan and North Caucasia.

Cotton Picking Machines.

The Uzbek Machine Building Works, have inaugurated the production of cotton pickers capable of harvesting 2½ hectares per day - the work of 30 to 40 farm hands. The use of mechanical appliances for harvesting has been hailed in the press as a considerable achievement doing away with the slowness and other disadvantages connected with hand picking.

The introduction of machinery for the speeding up of cotton harvesting was discussed by the all-Union Ministry of Agriculture in March 1946 when a separate Board to devise ways and means to achieve this was first put up. Complaints were registered in July, however, that after several months of existence the Board had accomplished nothing and had allotted a field base for its experimental work on cotton harvesting.

Science Helps Uzbek Cotton Growers.

Moscow Izvestiya on 31 August published an article by Professor Kanash, an expert on cotton growing, briefly outlining the services rendered by science to cotton growers of Uzbekistan, the greatest raw cotton base of the USSR. This article brings out a number of points on cotton cultivation in Uzbekistan which are of general interest and are reproduced below:

1. All cotton producing areas in the USSR are now sown with seeds supplied by Soviet selectionists.

2. Soviet selectionists have succeeded in introducing excellent new varieties of cotton which combine high productivity with good length and quality of fibre.

3. Considerable progress has been made in the acclimatization of long staple Egyptian cotton, Soviet selectionists having succeeded in evolving a variety of quick maturing Egyptian cotton of high quality growing larger, heavier and more abundant bolls.

4. Before the war the average yield of cotton per hectare in Uzbekistan was 17 centners though in some districts a higher yield of 25-30 centners was not uncommon. During the war in most districts the average yield dropped below 17 centners though again on certain State farms where "Stakhanovite" methods were used record yields of 50 centners per hectare were not unusual. In the opinion of Kanash these higher record yields can be maintained and introduced to other areas only with the active participation of cotton research workers. Good harvests resulting from high cotton yields depend on the number of bolls on cotton plants and on their heavier weight and it is up to scientists to teach the cultivator to raise a larger number of bolls on the individual plants and at the same time to create conditions for the shortening of the vegetative period. The application of scientific methods of cultivation in the Kaganovitch Sovhoz at Yangi Yul near Tashkent last year actually brought up the yield to 46.4 centners over an average area of 300 hectares.

5. The 1953 target of 25 centners per hectare and a total output of 2,400,000 tons of raw cotton in his opinion can hardly be attained without the further intensification of cotton research work in Uzbekistan which has a pronounced continental climate and a high range of temperature where cotton plantations depend mostly on irrigation. Kanash recommends the intensive use of more economical mechanical means for cotton harvesting, the reclamation of tracts of land affected by an excess of watering or seepage of irrigation waters, the evolving of improved cotton varieties, which would take eight to ten days less in maturing against the five to six days which are being saved now and the expanding, in rotation with cotton of the planting of lucerne.

The introduction of naturally colored varieties of cotton having all shades of green, brownish or brown, or having a range from pink to blue, which will provide new materials for textiles and create new problems, has also to be carefully examined.

Touching upon the same subject of the future expansion of cotton growing in Uzbekistan, Professor Tash Mohamed Kary Niyazov, President of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, recently outlined the following

program of work for the new Boards of Cotton Research and Irrigation which ~~are to be established within the framework of the Academy~~ are to be established within the framework of the Academy:

"The rapid development of cotton growing presents many problems to scientists. To solve them the Academy will establish a Cotton Research Institute. One of the most interesting aspects of the Institute's work is to be the study of the cotton plant with a view to controlling its development. The institute will also work to change the inherited traits of the plant, which will greatly aid selectionists in evolving better varieties " etc. etc.

Bulgarian Youth Delegation in Tashkent.

The Bulgarian Youth Delegation stayed in Tashkent for a week. Besides inspecting the Stalin Textile Combine Mills, the Parkhad Hydroelectric station, the Tashkent Central Asian University and the "Kolhozi" in the vicinity of Tashkent, the delegation paid a visit to the Uzbek Opera and Ballet theater and saw a preview of the new film Klyatva.

Cross Breeding the Koulans

We reproduce below a news clipping on the cross breeding in Uzbekistan of the Koulan (Djigitai) or (Equus Hemionius or Asinus Onager) which may be of interest.

"The Tashkent Institute of Animal Husbandry reports considerable headway in its extensive experiments in crossing horses and asses with the Koulan, the wild ass of Asia, which is a larger and more powerful animal than its domestic counterpart. This work was undertaken to provide Central Asian farms with a strong, sturdy draft animal adapted to local conditions.

"Up to date 64 hybrids have been raised, 22 by crossing the Koulan with the ass and 42 by crossing it with the horse. In size the Koulan ass cross exceeds the ass while the Koulan horse is in between the horse and the mule. Both are superior to their domestic parents in strength and endurance.

"Experts believe that the hybrids will be able to reproduce within two or three years when they reach physical maturity, which would give them an advantage over mules. The oldest of the hybrids are now between three and four years of age.

Russian Script for Uzbekistan

The shortcomings in the teaching of Russian in Uzbek schools were recently referred to in a resolution passed by the Central Committee of the Uzbek Communist Party in Uzbek schools. Among the measures are the raising of teachers qualifications, which since the war had greatly deteriorated, the provision of adequate and sufficient text books and the organization of mixed groups of Russian and Uzbek children at schools and kindergartens. The resolution fails, however, to dwell upon the progress or failure of the one single factor affecting the study of both Russian by the Uzbeks and of the Uzbek language by Russians, namely the unification on a general basis of the two alphabets.

The necessity for the further modification of the Uzbek alphabet in conformity with the Russian script and the history of the previous attempts to modify the Arabic script used by the Uzbeks was fairly clearly outlined by Professor Kary Miyazov, President of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, in a pamphlet published in 1940. His ideas carried considerable weight at the

time and influenced the then rulers of Uzbekistan to adopt for their usage in writing a modified form of the Russian script. Arabic characters had definitely been discarded and replaced by a Latinized script as early as in 1929. In the learned professor's view this original introduction of Latin characters was nevertheless unsatisfactory as the creators of the new alphabet in a mood of defiance against Russia deliberately declined to acknowledge the fact that the Uzbek language was an independent language and not merely a dialect of Turki. In 1934 this first version of the new Latinized alphabet had to be somewhat revised to conform better to the national aspirations of the Uzbeks who were desirous of severing all Turki connections and certain modifications were agreed upon to be introduced, more clearly reflecting the separate origin and development of the Uzbek language.

Kary Niyazov does not explain why an adapted version of the Russian alphabet rather than the Latinized script was not introduced in the first instance. It is most likely that the deliberate adoption in 1929 and again in 1934 of Latin characters was prompted by political considerations based on vague anticipations of a forthcoming world upheaval in which the Uzbek masses were to acquire a script of international usage, would have a better opportunity to participate. Now this psychology is more or less a thing of the past and the emphasis is more on a consolidation of the achievements of communism within the framework of the USSR. There is, therefore, a greater tendency for political and cultural contacts not so much with the world at large but within the orbit of the USSR with Russian culture, leading to an identification of Uzbek security and national aspirations with those of Russia.

Since the first adoption of the Latin script for the Uzbek alphabet, continues Kary Niyazov in his reasoning, eleven years have gone by, which have wrought tremendous changes in the upbringing and education of the younger generation of Uzbeks. For ever thousand of the population there are now 275 children attending primary schools. An Uzbek intelligentsia, two hundred thousand strong has sprung up and is actively participating in moulding the destinies of the country. Among these cultured classes there are not less than ten thousand doctors, engineers, teachers. The Uzbek language itself, according to Kary Niyazov has during this period been greatly enriched through contacts with Russian political thought, Russian literature and science. Desire for stronger ties with Russia and the waning hopes for a world revolution have reduced the Uzbeks to the necessity of dropping their Russian script. Uzbekistan has now reached a higher stage in its historical revolution, more in line with the socialist Russia than with the outside world. The Russian language has thus become a powerful instrument in fostering a socialist culture, and the adoption of a script which would eventually bring the Uzbek people to a more intimate understanding of the writings of Lenin and Stalin rendered in the most forward and "dialectically" advanced language has become a veritable necessity for a people aspiring to attain communism.

Kary Niyazov emphatically declares that there should not be the slightest element of compulsion in advancing the study of Russian in Uzbekistan and that to adopt Russian as the state language of Uzbekistan would have been an error even though the Russian language may now be recognized as one of the greatest in the world. He argues, however, that the Latinized script had to go, to be replaced by Russian characters adapted to the peculiar phonetic needs of the Uzbek language, as this reform was to greatly help in forming a common basis of understanding between the Uzbeks and the Russians. His arguments

upon as early as 1940.

The problem of the unification of the two alphabets was thus solved opening in the works of Kary Niyazov, a new page in the cultural history of the Uzbeks. We may agree with Kary Niyazov that this change did amount to a veritable revolution in the cultural life of the Uzbek people, destined to have enormous consequences in drawing together the mutually alien cultures of Russia and Uzbekistan. It was thought at the time that the Russification of the alphabet would give better opportunities for the attainment of universal literacy. Uzbek children, studying both languages would have to memorize only one basic script instead of two. The teaching of Russian was to be simplified. Some economy had also to be achieved in the matter of printing and printing requisites. Politically the implications were truly limitless as a demonstration of the fusion and unification of the efforts of Russians and Uzbeks in the creation of a socialist culture. However for an outsider Kary Niyazov's line of thought in justification of the Russification of the alphabet is a clear indication of the enormous impact of Russia on the peoples of Central Asia whose traditional framework of culture is rapidly breaking down under the onslaught of a modified form of new-imperialism under the cloak of communism.

Angren River Basin Coal Deposits.

The 1950 objective for coal in Uzbekistan under the modified five year plan is fixed at 1,130,000 tons calling for an elevenfold increase of coal output over 1945. A major part in this achievement is to be played by the development of the Angren coal fields, the new coal base for Uzbekistan some 120 km. from Tashkent. In the past only about 30% of Uzbekistan's coal requirements could be covered by local output and for its supply of coal the republic had to look to the Siberian Kuznetsk fields and to the neighboring republics of Tajikistan and Kirghizia.

The efforts of Uzbek geologists have now entirely overcome this deficiency in coal as the newly discovered Angren lignite deposits are estimated at more than four milliard tons. The Angren mines are to be worked by open cutting methods and from shallow (120-150 meter) pits. One of these open cuttings alone is to provide a million and a half tons annually.

Angren coal has a high moisture content (up to 35%) and is susceptible to oxidation, which has necessitated the construction at the mines of a briquette factory. The Angren fields will eventually supply not only Uzbekistan, but will produce enough coal in the form of briquettes for the use of the network of railways outside Uzbekistan.

Rural Electrification

More than 100 hydro-electric stations are now under construction in Uzbek villages and before the end of the year, the countryside is to acquire 300 new water power units as part of a comprehensive project for the rural electrification of Uzbekistan.

Until recently power development in Uzbekistan was centered on building stations on the large rivers to supply electricity to the growing industries and towns. Uzbekistan however, possesses big potentialities for setting up small hydro electric stations ranging in capacity from 50 to 100 kw on

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many of the smaller rivers and irrigation canals. Last year 45 such stations were built.

By the end of the current five year plan Uzbekistan will have built some 1000 rural hydro electric stations with an aggregate capacity of 53,000 kw. In addition many rural settlements will be hooked up to transmission lines of the bigger power stations. In particular, part of the power to be generated by the Farhad Hydro electric station now nearing completion will be widely utilized for the needs of agriculture..

The electricity produced by the small units is intended both for household requirements and the electrification of farm work such as threshing, cleaning grain, heating hot houses and hotbeds, milking cows, shearing sheep, pumping water to cattle barns, etc.

An electrical cotton drier has been recently designed which will be extensively applied in the future. Research is also under way on new applications for electricity on the farm, particularly in utilizing power for ploughing. The first model of an electric tractor with a mobile transformer that can be fed from high voltage transmission lines has been built. This electric tractor can work at a distance of one to two kilometers from its main feed line.

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Organized Nomadism

In Uzbekistan a 200 km motor road has been constructed in the main pasturing area to service the roaming herds along which lorries already carry supplies to the herdsmen and dairy produce and caracul lambskins on their return trip. Landing stages have likewise been surveyed and cleared in more remote localities to assist in supplying the basic needs of herdsmen, to cater for their cultural needs and to maintain postal facilities.

The annual drive from the Ferghana valley in Uzbekistan to summer pastures in the mountain valleys of the Alai and Trans-Alai ranges began last year twenty days earlier than usual. Some 300,000 head of cattle owned by collective farmers and state farmers were driven a distance of about 300 km over seven mountain passes ranging in height from 1,200 to 3,800 meters. About 5000 herdsmen including a number of veterinary surgeons accompanied the herds.

A telegram from Tashkent (13 Sept.) reported that 46 technical labor brigades were proceeding to the Kizyl Kum desert to dig deep wells in addition to the 1500 which had either been repaired or newly dug during the last two or three years. As a result of these activities considerable areas in the desert were coming back to life. Seasonal settlements were springing up around the wells with living quarters, veterinary and "Red Yurta" units and wireless receiving stations for political and cultural propaganda.

Caracul Sheep Breeding

"The rearing of valuable Caracul sheep is one of the oldest occupations in Uzbekistan. Certain collective farms possess 30,000 or more head and some state farms possess as many as 100,000. Originally the breeding area for caracul sheep was limited to the steppe regions between Bukhara and Karshi on the right bank of the Amu Darya.

A recent article by Nasyrev, Secretary to the Uzbek Ministry of Animal Husbandry describes the progress attained in the breeding of caracul sheep as follows:

"The Uzbek republic, one of the leading cattle breeding areas of the USSR is the primary base for rearing caracul sheep. In its Kolkhoz and Sovkhoz farms by the end of the next five years there will be nine million six hundred and fifty thousand sheep and goats including five and a half million caracul sheep.

War time difficulties did not arrest the increase in the number of sheep on Caracul farms, neither did it adversely affect the grading or quality of Caracul lambskins. During the last five years the number of cattle on Kolkhoz farms actually increased by 85% and the percentage of first grade skins rose from 46 to 57.

"During the same period Kolkhoz and Sovkhoz farms delivered to the state five million caracul lambskins and exported to other regions 155 thousand head of pedigree sheep. The larger farms have at present 12,000 to 30,000 head of sheep each.

"The Bukhara region of the republic is the leading caracul breeding area and in this district there are concentrated over 45% of the total caracul sheep in the republic. Using up to date methods of rearing individual Kolkhozi here have attained high records in the breeding of caracul lambs (132 lambs from every hundred ewes). Towards the end of the next five years Uzbekistan will attain even greater results, as by Jan 1 1948 the number of caracul sheep in the republic should reach three and a half million, the yield of first grade skins rising to 62%.

Exploration of the Ust-Urt Plateau

The Ust-Urt plateau a vast uninhabited area in Central Asia between the Aral and Caspian seas, some 195,000 sq km in area and 300 meters above sea level, has since long attracted the attention of Russian scientists. It was visited in the 19th century by the Russian travellers Kargin, Borschov and Severtsev and early in this century by Neustroev. Until recently, however a substantial section of its territory remained unexplored.

"Penetrating deep into the uncharted part of the plateau a recent scientific expedition of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences made some interesting discoveries. For example, it had formerly been believed that the Ust-Urt plateau was a desert. This has now been found to be a misconception, as for a good part of the year and especially in the spring the plateau is covered with vegetation. The expedition came across various prairie grasses and small bushes.

"The expedition also confirmed that the Ust-Urt has once been the scene of human habitation. To the traces of man of the neolithic age discovered in the past in the northern part of the plateau it has now added relics of material culture relating to later epochs and indicating that man dwelt on the plateau until comparatively recently.

"Especially interesting are the small mausoleums of uncut slabs of colored limestone of a type entirely unknown to science, discovered in the interior of Ust-Urt. Their architecture is quite unique, consisting in most cases of a square structure topped by a spherical tapering cupola.

"The inscriptions on these bright colored mausoleums indicate that they house the remains of chieftains and elders of the various nomad tribes that once dwelt in the Ust-Urt and are evidence of the fact that the tribes had acquired a high level of culture in spite of their nomadic mode of life.

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" Other traces of the handiwork of man include the remains of numerous wells and a highway that once crossed the plateau from north to south.

"Today life is returning to the Ust-Urt plateau and the development of its natural resources for stock raising is an item on the five year plan of the Kara Kalpak Autonomous SSR.

The rich pasture lands of the Ust-Urt plateau are sufficient to feed huge herds of live stock. Modern methods of farming which have made agriculture less dependent on meteorological conditions than formerly should make it possible to develop stock raising to a level undreamt of by its nomad population in the distant past.

" One of the immediate projects is to turn the entire Ust-Urt plateau into a large center for the breeding of caracul sheep. The area also provides highly favorable conditions for the breeding of camels.

" The development of the Ust-Urt plateau will entail a good deal of work. New modern settlements are to be built in the interior of the plateau to accommodate the stock raisers. The necessary building materials can be found on the spot. Scheduled to be built is also a large network of wells, for apart from a few salt lakes which are rapidly drying up there are no natural reservoirs or rivers to provide water to live stock. Another important aspect of development will be building roads.

Uzbekistan Metallurgical Works

Both Moscow Pravda and Izvestiya devoted considerable space and their ~~main~~ leading articles on October 26th to the official opening of the Uzbek Metallurgical Works, praising the efforts of the Uzbek people in speedily completing and extending the steel foundry first inaugurated during the war. The articles are obviously based on identical background material. The Izvestiya leader is, however, written in a less flowery style. The Pravda will refer to the Uzbeks as the "valiant" Uzbek people and to their achievements causing great rejoicing and a feeling of pride among the population of the Union, and is more inclined to sing dithyrambs to Stalin, the leader who conceived and was personally responsible for the foundation and construction of this first born child of Uzbek heavy industries, whereas Izvestiya refers more soberly to the Uzbek Metallurgical Works as having been started on Stalin's initiative and omits the word Valiant in characterizing the efforts of the Uzbek people. Both the papers, however regard the successful construction of the plant as a new triumph of the Lenin Stalin policy of the Bolshevik Party and as a formidable victory of the party and of the Soviet Govt on the industrial front leading towards the manifold development of the economy of the Union republics". Both papers draw attention to the fact that the construction of the plant was made possible only through the united efforts of the Soviet people. One most significant trend in the economy of the Union is specifically emphasized in the Izvestiya which says that the heavy industries of the Union are now marching eastward as a consequence of which Russian Central Asian republics have acquired their own metallurgical base.

" With the aid of all the peoples of the Soviet Union and especially of the great Russian people, continues Pravda, Uzbekistan has within a brief historical period been transformed into **CONTROL**

biggest industrial centers of our country. Uzbekistan has now its own machine building industry, its own highly developed textile industry, coal mines, oil fields, chemical works and power stations. Recently a superphosphate plant was completed at Kokand. Nearing completion is the Farkhad hydro electric station on the Syr Darya which will be one of the biggest in the Soviet Union. A new coal field is being opened at Angren. Preparations are also being made to tap on an industrial scale the copper deposit of the republic. In line with the new five year plan, industrial production in Uzbekistan by 1950 is to be 89% above 1940. To this list of achievements, Izvestiya, adds the oil fields of the Ferghana valley and the search for wolfram and molybdenum which is successfully continuing.

In a message to the builders and workers of the Uzbek metallurgical works the Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the USSR J. Stalin cabled as follows:

etc. etc.

The Uzbek Metallurgical Works are situated near the Farkhad hydro-electric power station which should be completed by the end of the year, in the region of Begovat, 180 km from Tashkent.

The decision to construct a steel foundry at Begovat was initially implemented under war conditions at the beginning of 1943 at a time when according to the Soviet Press, "only a people trusting in the righteousness of the great Lenin Stalin tasks could have dared to start on such a vast construction job". The site selected for the construction was the desolate steppe on which work was made the more difficult by climatic conditions: extreme heat of summer and the cold and winds of winter. The task undertaken was a rush war job in which the population of Uzbekistan gladly participated. People wishing to aid in the new development flocked from every corner of Uzbekistan. Collective farms sent caravans of foodstuffs for the builders. Railway sleepers came from Namangan, poles for transmission lines from Tashkent, foodstuffs from Bukhara and Samarkand. Aiding Uzbekistan in the development of its first steel plant were the mammoth mills in the eastern districts of the USSR, Magnitogorsk, Kuznetsk, and Guryev where production of mill equipment was promptly organized. War time shortage of materials placed many obstacles in the way of the builders but these were successfully overcome thanks to the use of new methods of construction. Within one year the open hearth and several other shops were built and Uzbekistan began to produce its first steel. This year assembling of the rolling mill was completed and now Uzbekistan produces both its own steel and rolled metals.

The steel foundry produced its first steel in March 1944 by which time the open hearth furnace was already completed. on 30 Aug. last year Rolling Mill "300" began to produce its first tons of rolled steel. The rolling unit is now fully mechanized and is capable of producing 60,000 tons of rolled metal annually.

The construction of the Uzbek Metallurgical Works was originally meant to replace plants destroyed by the Germans but will now play its part in the development of Russian heavy industries and in strengthening the economic and defensive powers of the Union. It should lead to an expansion of the machine building industry in

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Uzbekistan and to the growth of the industrial potential of the republic especially of its cotton production which is being more and more mechanized.

"The training of skilled labor for the mill was started while the mill was started while the mill was barely taking shape with 800 young Uzbeks collective farmers being trained in the essentials of their future tasks in metallurgical plants of the Urals and Siberia.

All these glowing reports on the Uzbek Metallurgical Works do no change, however, the admitted fact that the Begovat works are merely a mill for melting down scrap iron and that the plant has no complete cycle for the production of steel from iron ore.

Commenting on the new steel mill the official Soviet Mining Journal admits that at the time when the project for the construction of the Uzbek Metallurgical Works was first launched it had not been properly ascertained whether the Begovat mills should be adequately supplied with raw materials as the iron ore base of the new steel mills had not been properly surveyed. This omission was partly due to war time conditions and to the urgent expediency of converting all available scrap iron in Central Asia to the manufacture of steel. Most geologists likewise thought at the time that Central Asia comprised a geological area poor in iron ores. During the last 2-3 years numerous fields of iron ores, of coal, of fire resisting clays, of quartz, limestone, dolomites and moulding sands have however been discovered and Begovat will have all the necessary materials and fuel for the production of steel.

In discussing the future of the Uzbek Metallurgical Works this journal asserts that within the territory of Central Asia there were recently located at least 150 "points" disclosing the presence of iron bearing ores which in the majority of cases have been only partially explored. It describes in greater detail three iron ore bearing fields: Abail Susingen, and Turangly which in its opinion alone constitute an adequate base for the supply of raw materials for the new steel mills.

Abail is 250 km from the new mills and only 6 km from Abail Station on the Turksib. It could use electric power from the Vannovskaya hydro electric station of the river Arys three km away. from Abail

Susingen is 60 km southeast of Chirchik and 250 km from the new mills. Electric power here is available from the near by Lenger mines. Susingen is however difficult to approach and a broad gauge line 40-45 km long would have to be constructed to the mines as well as an overhead cable line 5-6 km long before they could be properly worked.

Turangly is 30 km from Begovat and 26 km from the Balverzin State farm, the terminus of a narrow gauge line, the track for which was laid already in 1942. This branch line to be completed requires only the laying of sleepers and rails. Power for Turangly could be supplied from the high tension line Parkhad-Tashkent. Of the above three ore bearing mines, Turangly has been known for many years. In ancient times it was exploited for iron and in 1910 for copper.

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The requirements of the plant for coke can also be readily met, as adequate resources of coking coal were recently discovered in different localities in Central Asia including the eastern part of the Ferghana valley at Tuyuk Su and Beshtrik, and at the newly discovered Fan Yagnob coal field.

Labor is also assured, as apart from the newly trained workers the district around the mill has a large kolkhoz population from which workers could be easily drafter.

Uzbek Textiles

There were no textile mills in Uzbekistan before the revolution and piece goods were mostly imported from the Central Russian cities of Tver (Kalinin), Moscow, Ivanova-Voznesensk (Ivanovo) and other places. Although Central Asia was Russia's main cotton base it had for a long time no textile mills of its own.

The first Uzbek textile mills were opened in Tashkent in 1934 and have by now developed into a great Textile "Kombinat" producing daily a quarter of a million meters of textiles.

The Kombinat labor population numbering about 30,000 is mostly centered in one of Tashkent's ~~suburbs~~ suburbs which it is alleged has all the necessary amenities to provide for the well being and the cultural requirements of the population.

During the war the Tashkent Textile Mills were converted to war production and the manufacture of parachutes, materials for aviation balloons and other aviation requirements in fine textures as well as hospital requisits. The mills began their reconversion to peace time production in 1945.

A new section is now to be added to the mills for the manufacturing of high quality thread. The number of spindles is also to be shortly increased by 60,000. 28,000 spindles are to be additionally installed at the Ferghana Textile Mills as well.

Ferghana Valley Oil

Oil production in the Ferghana Valley is a new industry which was first started during the war. Six oil fields are at present in operation in the Andizhan and Ferghana districts and are operated mostly with the help of local Uzbek labor.

The richest fields of the new basin are Palvantash and Andizhan where the monthly production last October exceeded the set target by 3,000 tons.

Geologists are continuing their exploration of this area and it is expected that before long new oil gushers will be added to those now in operation.

Modern labor settlements have been built in the oil fields with houses having both gas and electric current.

According to the five year plan Uzbekistan oil fields will produce by 1950, 1066 thousand tons of oil

Farkhadstroi

The five year plan envisages an increase by 3½ times in the production of electric power in Uzbekistan over 1940. The largest of the new power stations will be the Farkhad Hydroelectric plant near the kishlak (village) of Begovat on the Syr Darya which was started during the

The dam for the power station has been completed and the waters of the Syr Darya are to be soon turned into the deviation canal, 13½ km long. The canal will cross the Shirin Saisk valley. Used waters from this canal will be further utilized through a system of irrigation canals for watering the Golodnaya Steppe.

Sericulture

Six new species of silkworms have so far been reared by the Institute, one of which, the "Soviet species, yields 17% more yarn of high quality than the "Bagdad species, previously cultivated in Uzbekistan.

The target towards the end of the five year period for the production of silk in Uzbekistan has been set at 1½ times higher than the present production target. This will necessitate a more widespread introduction of the new, advanced types of silkwork and mulberry trees and will also require the further mechanization of sericultural methods.

1946 Cotton crop

The 1947 season foresees a further increase in cotton target deliveries to the State to be attained mainly through an increase in the area under cotton.

fifteen centners average yield established in Uzbekistan in 1940. Mechanical means and the use of tractors are to be increased. Skvortzov, Minister of Industrial crops in the USSR admits however, that though republican industries are likely to intensify their assistance to cotton planters in supplying mechanical equipment, the main work of preparing the fields will still have to be done by the existing "part" of tractors, which demands special attention to be given between seasons to maintenance and repair of all available tractors and agricultural machinery.

Information coming in from individual republics confirms what both Skvortzov and Kossov had to report. For Uzbekistan we have an overall earlier report by Sukaev, Minister of Industrial Crops in Uzbekistan part of which reads as follows:

"The considerable increase in the harvest registered in Uzbekistan last year is the result of extensive assistance rendered by the Soviet State. Last spring our collective farms received large consignments of new tractors, while the USSR chemical industry supplied us with mineral fertilizers on a much larger scale than in 1945.

"Collective farms are now competing to outstrip one another in the quantity of cotton deliveries to the State. An outstanding part in this drive to increase deliveries has been played by the ~~summmmm~~ movement among individual Kolkhozi to raise not less than 5,000 kg. of cotton a season, which is now a very popular target among Uzbek collective farmers. The key to the achievement of this goal of increasing the present quota of 2000 by 300 kg lies of course in the further rationalization of methods of cotton cultivation.

"Cotton picking is becoming rapidly mechanized. For instance, mechanical means are to be employed to pick cotton bolls which have not had time to open before the advent of cold weather over an area of 440,000 acres and to dig up plants after the crop has been gathered from an area of 815,000 acres. The application of these means will make it possible to clear the fields and begin ploughing much earlier".

The Uzbekistan Council of Ministers and the Central Committee of the Communist Party recently issued a decree to increase further the area under cotton-production. Over 30,000 hectares are to be brought under cotton cultivation and next year some 4,000 families are to be settled in this new cotton growing area.

Another news item stated that cotton planting in the Southern districts of Uzbekistan as compared with 1926 was to be increased by 20%.

Processing of last year's cotton crop in Uzbekistan at the 28 ginneries of the republic started early in October, all these ginneries daily exceeded their target output. Two new ginneries at Bukhara and Zerabulak were exceeding their daily quota by 20%.

Sugar Beet

Sugar beet was first introduced into Uzbekistan in 1942 when 65,000 hectares in the cotton belt were assigned to beets out of the 900,000 hectares planted with cotton. The area of this new experiment in beet cultivation was selected in Uzbekistan because Uzbekistan had areas of irrigated land and water reserves which had not been totally utilized. It was also thought at the time that the population of Uzbekistan, depending since long on irrigation for cultivating cotton, was traditionally more adapted to learn new methods of sugar beet cultivation. The experiment has presumably been a success as the recent enthusiastic outbursts in the press in the working of the first year of the current five year plan can only

be an indication that sugar beet cultivation in the cottonbelt has come to stay. Sugar yields in many localities are reported to exceed the norm of Western Europe of 300 centners per hectare. This success in the cultivation of a new crop has been followed by an increase in sugar production, the four new modern refineries built in Uzbekistan during the war having considerably exceeded last year's production targets.

By the end of September, 1946, the sugar industry of Uzbekistan had not only reached its production target but had produced 15,600 more tons of sugar than in 1945, though at that time there were still several months to go before the expiration of the year. Exact figures of production are not available. The 1950 production target sets the quantity of granulated sugar to be produced at 55,000 tons. Special references were made in the press to the collective farms of the Yangi Yul, Shan Garan and Tashkent districts where sugar beet yields had exceeded the 300 centner mark. The first to start processing the new harvest were the Yangi Yul Sugar Mills. All headings in the press on sugar production loudly proclaim that the prescribed targets for sugar production in Uzbekistan had generally been "overfulfilled".

Sugar cane cultivation in Uzbekistan has been introduced in the Surkhan Darya district where sugar cane was initially planted on ten hectares. The experiment was successful and it has now been decided to extend sugar cane plantations in this district to 360 hectares. Nitrogenous fertilizers were applied to the soil four times during the period of vegetation.

Health and Sanitation.

Official account:

" Not many people know what splendid rest houses there are in this republic and how delightful are the places created by Nature for giving men rest and cure " — writes a doctor from Uzbekistan.

Thirty years ago there were in the whole of Turkestan (RCA) only a few curing places for higher officials who required treatment with mudbath. Now Uzbekistan alone has four important health centers: Hamusga and Yalangach at Tashkent. Ak-Tash not far from the Chirchik Kombinat, and Shakhimardan.

Shakhimardan is one of the best Central Asian curing places. It is situated on a spacious terrace on the river Ak-Su and is surrounded by lofty mountains on three sides which protect the sanatorium from inclement winds. The scenery is majestic yet restful. The climate is bracing: warm winter and temperate summer. More than 3000 patients visit the sanatorium for rest and cure: workmen, office employees, the intelligentsia, kolkhoz workers, students and school children.

Apart from the sanatorium at Shakhimardan the other (Trade-union) sanatoria provide for 6,000 workers every year. More than 20,000 patients have been attended to in the republic's sanatoria during the few years of their existence.

According to Salmat Yuldasheva, Deputy People's Commissar of Health of Uzbekistan, arrangements are being made for 60,000 school children to spend their summer vacations at Young Pioneer camps. "This is in addition to juvenile vacationers at special sanatoria, country side nurseries and other children's health institutions."

Development of health services in the republic under the current five year plan was discussed in a press interview given by Prof. A. J. Karasev, Deputy Minister of Health of the Uzbek SSR.

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" Hospital accommodation is to be substantially expanded. More than 300 additional obstetrical centers are to be set up and 22 more institutions to combat malaria.

" During the next five years collective farm nurseries will take care of an additional 50,000 children. Seasonal climatic and balneological sanatoria have been opened in Uzbekistan.

"The shortage of medical personnel in this republic will be considerably alleviated in 1949 when local medical institutes will have graduated some 2000 doctors. More than 7000 junior medical practitioners are to be trained during the next five years.

Considering that there are at present 4000 medical practitioners (as against 128 in 1914) and that it took the republic more than a score of years to reach the present number, training an additional cadre of 2000 qualified doctors and 7000 junior practitioners within four years looks to be an ambitious task.

Stage and Screen

The Uzbeks were probably nomadic at one time, as their geographical surroundings could tend to make them, but have a settled existence for many centuries. They are of Turkic origin with a negligible admixture of Iranian and Russian blood. Mullah ridden and fanatic, proud of their own ancient tradition and impervious to westernization hardly more than a decade ago, they have been given the amenities of modern culture almost abruptly.

The theater, the unfailing distributor of "ideas" and "ideology" in the USSR has to a large extent been instrumental in effecting the change; while the pre-revolutionary days racy, "heroic" dialogues, puppet shows, folk bards, singers, dancers, story tellers and acrobats in market places supplied entertainment, to a naïf, hearty gathering, the country now boasts of 45 theaters (there was only 1 in 1913) 420 picture houses and an opera house conforming to European standards of taste. On the site of the "Market of Drunkards" at Tashkent, there now stands the Uzbek State Opera House.

Pioneer work in Uzbek drama on European lines, however, was done as early as 1913 by Mukhmud Khodja Bekbud through his "Patricide". Of scant literary merit, the play was a poor imitation of what was being done in the West in those days, but it did inspire a number of mediocre talents to "civilize the masses through the theater". There was no fixed playhouse, so that performances were held in a tent, itinerant circus fashion, or on platforms by the roadside.

A real theater, however, was started at Tashkent in 1920 to meet the demands of Uzbek nationalists who wanted to awaken the masses through the theater. Fitrat, the Pan-Turk dramatist, got up gaudy shows with characters speaking patriotic purple passages.

Isranov, the Secretary of the Uzbek Communist Party, with the assistance of the poet dramatist, Khamza, established a theatrical studio in 1924 with actors coached by the Vakhtangov Theater of Moscow. This studio staged in 1927 a number of Soviet plans translated into Uzbek, which provided the real inspiration to a wide spread awakening of the people's artistic sensibilities. After a protracted series of bachehats between the nationalists who opposed westernization of the stage, and the progressivists who favored it, Uzbek stage was built up entirely on the European lines. There Gogol and Shakespeare, Goldoni and Lope de Vega, Schiller, and Beaumarchais spoke in Uzbek. It was a triumph for the progressivists, but patriotic fanatics wanted the masses to be awakened by the theater.

Khamza Khakim Zade Niyazi, poet, novelist (the first Uzbek novelist), musician and playwright, author of more than a dozen plays (best known, the four Ferghana Tragedies) was murdered in cold ~~murdered~~ blood in 1929 at the age of forty, when later years held rich promises from his facile pen.

The principal theater of Tashkent is called after Khamza the seventeenth century Uzbek poet, and whose name the later poet adopted as his praenomen. Some say, it is after the later poet that the theater is called. The contribution, however of Khamza Khakim Zade Niyazi to the creation of contemporary Uzbek theater can hardly be minimized inasmuch as the poet dramatist's life was made the subject of a moving play written by two Uzbekistan's foremost playwrights, Yashen and Umari.

The Khamza Theater has rendered invaluable service to Uzbek dramaturgy. It was the Khamza Theater's inspiration that created the modern Uzbek playwrights, — Gafur Gulyam, Aibek, Uigun, Sultanov, Shalik Zade, Yashen, and Umari.

Along with Uzbek dramaturgy the art of acting has made long strides towards westernization and can legitimately boast of such names as Khalima Nasyrova, the opera singer, and Javad Abidev and Kudrat Khojayev, the gegisseurs, all of whom today are All Union figures in histrionic art. The Bakhtangov School where most of the Uzbek artistes were trained, has done its best to preserve Uzbekistan's local color by adopting her ornamental design, music and folk dances to embellish her stagecraft.

Recently, the Khamza theater of Tashkent celebrated its 25th anniversary by a 10 day festival billing its best productions during the period of its existence. A great undertaking was the performance of "Navoi" a play about the famous 15th century Uzbek statesman and poet Alisher Navoi, founder of Uzbek classical literature.

Among the other 44 theaters there are some which tour the province. The theater of the Red Army of the Turkestan military zone has recently observed its 15th anniversary after having given a good account of itself, viz. 86 premieres and visits to 30 towns of Central Asia.

Tashkent is going to have its greatest theater this year as the building is nearing completion. The Navoi Theater is 84,000 cubic meters in size and will hold 1,500 spectators. The interior is lavishly decorated in the Uzbek style.

Side by side with the theater Uzbek opera has not lagged behind. There was a Russian Opera, the Sverdlov Russian Theater of Opera and Ballet, the first opera house in Central Asia, was already in existence and observed its 25th anniversary last year. But the demand of the Uzbek people to have their own Opera House had been growing in recent years, and all hands in Uzbekistan have gone to build a national opera, the State Theater of Opera and Ballet in the center of Tashkent.

Work on the structure continued all through the war and every district sent a team of workmen and building materials, specially marble and granite. The building is in the style of ancient Uzbek architecture, copied from mausoleums of the times of Tamerlane in Samarkand, Bukhara and other Central Asian towns. The interior decoration is being done by Uzbek craftsmen in gilt alabaster, depicting designs from all the regions of Uzbekistan. There are colorful murals in the old Uzbek style on subject borrowed from the works of Alisher Navoi. Uzbek women have contributed their quota too by embroidering in gold thread the magnificent velvet curtain for the stage. A large pond with a fountain is being laid out in front of the Opera House so that the building will be reflected in the water in keeping

with the ancient adage that "everything that is reflected in water is eternal in Heaven."

Operatic art in Uzbekistan was born in 1939 when her new troupe consisting of singers staged the national opera "Buran" on which the young Uzbek composer Mukhtar Ashrafi, and the Russian composer, S. Vasilenko, collaborated. Uzbek opera since then has steadily developed.

The opera has billed "Carmen" and Chaikovsky's "Queen of Spades" among other things. Among the artistes the foremost are Khalima Nasyrova, Sara Samandarova, Karim Zakirov, and Mordukhai Davydov. The operas projected to be staged are "Aida", "Rigoletto" and Mussorgsky's "Sorochinskikh Fair" in Uzbek translations. Rehearsals are about to begin of the first Uzbek opera "Kyz Tarkygi" by the composer T. Sadykov.

On the boards of the Uzbek State Theater of Opera and Ballet, ballet has been given its due place as well. "The Fountain of Bakhehisarai" produced by Asafiyev was a complete success and showed the high standard attained by ballet dancers. Delibes' "Coppelia", Chaikovsky's "Sleeping Beauty" and Gliere's "Red Poppy" are among the projects of the ballet repertoire. The Theater's Ballet troupe is tutored by the Tamara Khanum Choreographic School in Tashkent.

Uzbek ballet owes a lot to Tamara Khanum. This ballerina of international fame is of Armenian origin, but all her artistic life is bound up with Uzbekistan. She is unrivalled in Uzbek ballet. Her greatest achievement is the ~~Makhmuriy~~ "Silkwork". Soviet critics look upon her as one of those who are helping in the transformation of exotic bazaars and narrow streets into the New Soviet East.

In the general regeneration of Uzbek dramaturgy the screen is not being neglected. A few months ago shooting on the Uzbek film "The Surgeon" was completed. The script is by A. Speshnev and Y. Yaluner, and deals with Uzbek surgeons and their work in the Red Army during the war. It is directed by Yarmatov. The second part of the film "Nasredin in Bukhara" is being made now. The basic version of the film is in the Uzbek language. Its location shots are being made in the Ferghana valley and the interiors in Tashkent.

Education

In comparing present educational facilities with those in the past observers usually underline the vast expansion of the network of Uzbek schools which now includes a large number of colleges, and enthusiastically laud the provisions of the current five year plan which provides for a further increase of primary and secondary schools by 1950 to 4,750 from the present figure of 4,467, with an attendance of 1,085,000. at primary and secondary schools.

Modern culture, they say, has come to stay in the towns and villages of Uzbekistan though a little more than twenty years ago, less than three per cent of the local population were able to read or write, while in the few national schools that functioned, instruction in the Uzbek language was prohibited except in Moslem religious schools.

Uzbekistan according to them is no longer confronted with the problem of illiteracy. Apart from its primary and secondary schools, Uzbekistan has now 37 higher educational and 67 technical colleges and dozens of scientific institutions working under the general supervision of the Uzbek Academy of

Sciences, though before the revolution an Uzbek with university education was a rarity.

Such is the general picture. Since the termination of the war considerable efforts have further been made to improve the material conditions of the school network. The Ministry of Education recently reported that four thousand secondary school premises and five thousand teachers houses had undergone repairs this summer. To provide for the winter over ~~thousand~~ the thousand tons of coal had also been delivered to the schools. An additional cadre of 1,500 teachers had completed their training and special courses had been conducted to improve the knowledge and training of not less than 12,000 teachers. Extraordinary measures had also been taken to improve the standard of teaching Russian.

Reports from the provinces (~~from~~ Samarkand) however, were not so favorable and registered complaints of the low level of instruction in county schools, especially in the teaching of Russian and that demands made upon pupils were far too small, good marks being given for very poor work. Conditions at the Samarkand Pedagogical institution, it was said, were utterly unsatisfactory. The premises of this institution were dirty and untidily kept and the students were slovenly and were not being taught the rudiments of cultural habits.

Last summer the Tashkent conference of Russian language teachers devoted its session to discussions of practical methods and to be enforced to solve the problem of raising the standard of teaching Russian in national Uzbek schools, a task considered to be of vital importance to the whole of the Soviet Union. Reports read at this conference were mostly on methodological questions such as "On teaching Russian," "Fundamental principles of teaching Russian grammar", "Comparison of Russian and Uzbek grammars", "Current Russian pronunciation" and similar topics.

Almalyk Copper

Construction work at the site of the Almalyk Copper and Zinc Kombinat, 80 km from Tashkent which had to be interrupted during war years, has now been resumed and thousands of workmen have already been collected to help in this job. Capital investments earmarked for the construction of the various enterprises of the Kombinat which will include an ore concentration factory and a copper smelting mill had provisionally been established at several hundred million rubles. Work is presumably only at its initial stage, as for the current year only five million rubles have so far been assigned.

Conditions for the construction of the Almalyk plant have greatly improved since prewar years, as building materials can now be hauled by rail over the newly constructed railway branch line Tashkent-Angren.

Electric current to the site will be supplied by the Farkhad Power Station.

Geological surveys predict that Almalyk will have a great future as its copper ore deposits are reckoned to be greater than those in the Urals. The deposits will be worked by open cut methods.

New Airways

A total of thirty new airlines was established last year in Soviet Uzbekistan and all administrative districts of this republic are now reported to be connected by airlines with Tashkent. The total length of this air network

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exceeds 6000 miles. Last year 126,000 passengers -- four times as many as in 1945 -- 4000 tons of freight and 900 tons of mail were actually carried by these lines.

Air ambulance services were also extended this year and ambulance planes made a total of 1,300 flights to bring urgently needed medical aid to residents in remote parts of the republic.

The five year plan provides for a further extension of the Republics air network, which should reach next year about 9,000 miles.

May-June, 1947

Polling Day in Russian Central Asia

In Uzbekistan the elections were likewise preceded by an intense electioneering campaign praising as in the other republics of Russian Central Asia, the benevolent part the Russian people and the Communist Party had taken in building up the advance economy of the Uzbeks. Publicity organs in Uzbekistan carried out mass distribution of electioneering literature in the Uzbek, Kara Kalpak and other languages spoken in their republic. A series of artistic multi colored placards were also prepared though their number 13 -- seems small when one considers that their appeal was directed to a scattered and variegated electorate. Brochures by Lenin and other marxist classics and the text of the Law on the five year plan were also widely circulated. A total of 4,514 propaganda centers was organized to conduct the election campaign not only with the limited object of enlightening prospective voters on election matters but also for the inauguration of a competitive socialist drive in various branches of industry and agriculture and for publicizing the five year plan. In the conduct of this campaign special attention was given to the backward population of the Kara Kalpak ASSR where over one hundred qualified agitators were despatched for lecturing and propaganda talks. These propagandists were to remain in Karakalpakia until until polling day. A number of circulating libraries containing political and economic literature bearing on the elections was also organized.

As a result of this intense activity all the nominated candidates were duly elected, only 4,482 out of 3,267,501 voters voting against their election. As in other republics of Russian Central Asia leading statesmen of the USSR were elected with great acclamation: Stalin, Molotov, Kaganovitch and Zhdanov from Tashkent, and Voroshilov from Samarkand. Correspondents of Moscow papers unanimously write about the bustling activity, the fully awakened political consciousness, and the excellent behavior of the electors. They also triumphantly report that polling day became the occasion for spontaneous widespread rejoicing and festivities. Tashkent was especially gaily decorated and 400 large sized portraits of candidates, whose election was assured in any case, graced the boulevards and squares of the capital.

In line with the numerical increase of the population and the creation since 1938 of new urban centers five new electorates were added to the list of constituencies. Among these are Angren, the coal base of Uzbekistan, the industrial center of Chirchik (2 constituencies) where chemical and mechanical industries are rapidly being built up, Begovat the new center of Uzbek metallurgy and Katta Kurgan, the settlement near the huge new water reservoir which would have provided this spring 200 million cu m. of water

The general trends of publicity in Uzbekistan being similar to those in other Russian Central Asian republics most likely reflect party directives from Moscow. In the words of Sultan Umarov, a Member of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences and Rector of the Tashkent University, who was a recent visitor to the Indian Congress of Scientists, the population of Uzbekistan had indeed been fortunate in reaching socialism without first passing through the torturing treadmill of a capitalist stage of economic development. Umarov quotes Stalin, who years ago defined Russia's task in the East to be building up a Soviet citadel and socialist beacons in Kazan, Ufa, Samarkand and Tashkent to light up for the suffering masses of the East the path towards deliverance.

Another publicity feature was statements expressing joy in the fulfilment of Uzbek national aspirations and in the creation of an Uzbek national home. This theme is repeated by many prominent Uzbeks who untiringly reiterate that Uzbekistan has now for the first time in history attained the status of an independent nation.

Among achievements brought about through adherence to Lenin-Stalin policies are listed: the creation of industries which had transformed Uzbekistan into an industrial country; the gradual enforcement of a program for the total electrification of Uzbekistan which had already led to the erection of ten large hydro electrical stations each with a capacity larger than the total power capacity of Uzbekistan before the revolution; the successful carrying out of land and irrigation reforms and the creation of new irrigation facilities such as the Great Ferghana and Molotov Canals, the North Tashkent Canal, the Katta Kurgan Reservoir and of the Zeravshan Dam; the mechanization of agriculture, the erection of the Kokand Superphosphates Works, of the ~~Bukhara~~ Ferghana Hydrolytic Works, of three sugar refineries and the development of wolfram mining. The overall investments in the economy of Uzbekistan are given for the period of the three previous five year plans as seven milliard rubles. Efforts made during the elections to provide for a spectacular demonstration of unity and mutual understanding between the Russians and the Uzbeks and for energetically publicizing the post war five year plan were certainly most conspicuous. As reported, 4,514 publicity centers were specially organized to conduct the election campaign and 60,000 propagandists sent out for mass political work among electors, which means that on an average each sixty electors were served by one propagandist entrusted with their enlightenment and the supervision of the elections in the interests of the ruling party. Reflecting the higher cultural level of the Uzbeks the educational qualifications of the candidates are correspondingly higher. There is a larger percentage among them of political luminaries and of intellectuals ~~among~~ though Stakhanovites and managers of Kolkhos and Sovkhoz farms are not excluded, which shows the supreme importance attached to the successful carrying out of the war time pyatiletka for the consolidation of the existing political regime.

Notes on the Komsomol

Reports on the 11th session of the Komsomol in Uzbekistan, the 7th in Tajikistan and the 4th in Kirghizia, held this winter in Tashkent, Stalinabad and Frunze respectively, are of some interest as they disclose post war trends and shortcomings in organizations of Communist youth which are bound to have lasting effects on the building up of party cadres in Russian Central Asia.

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The session in Uzbekistan was the most illuminating inasmuch as it revealed an intensely critical approach (either inspired or spontaneous) to the main problems facing communist youth in the post war period. The participation in its sittings as honorary guests of influential representatives of the local high military and civil command may also be construed as significant. These guests included General Petrov, Officer Commanding Turkestan Military District, and Lt. Gen. Uranov, of the Turkestan Military Council, both of whom made speeches emphasizing the importance to members of the Komsomol of acquiring an adequate military training, of keeping fit and building up their physique. Sarimsakov, the President of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, and Ismailov, Chairman of the Physical Culture and Sports Department of the Government, were also present.

Altogether 428 delegates including 162 women participated in the conference sittings representing 208,000 members of the Uzbek Komsomol. Though the delegates were drawn from 17 nationalities, 67% of them were Uzbeks. The educational standard of the conference was high: 30% of the delegates held University degrees or were university students, 45% had received an intermediate education, only 25% had primary or "home" education.

Speeches at the session reveal and shed light on a number of formidable difficulties and problems confronting Uzbek Komsomol which loudly call for adjustment and speedy rectification. Among these may be listed charges against the Central Uzbek Komsomol Committee for paying slight attention to the routine conduct of school affairs to the attainments, behavior and school work and activities of Komsomol youth and to the improvement of facilities for external education in addition to school curriculums. General slackness in supervising educational activities, it was alleged, had unfortunately led to a relapse of Komsomol youth into ignorance, as being left to themselves of Komsomol youth into ignorance, as being left to themselves there were neglecting reading the current press and visiting theatrical performances and other cultural amenities, and displayed no interest in literature or art. In explaining this slackness speakers had to admit, however that it was due partly not to inherent laziness but to scarcity of literature for the education of Komsomol youth and to the fact that translations of best modern Soviet writers were not always available. Even more deplorable, in the opinion of other speakers, was the absence of comprehensive programs for external education and reading and of any thoughtful guidance on the part of Komsomol leaders.

A specific point raised at the session was that in the absence of proper guidance Komsomol organization had failed to accomplish their primary task of recruiting and giving country youth the rudiments of technical knowledge in preparation for their employment in the industries of the republic.

General Petrov emphasized at the same time the necessity of improving physical culture training, which as admitted also by other speakers, was at a low ebb.

The presence of Generals Petrov and Uranov at the Conference finds a ready explanation when one recalls directives broadcast by the chief political directorate of the armed forces of the USSR. (Red Star, Oct. 22 1946). This directive points out that since the majority of the personnel of the armed forces were young people, the importance of the Komsomol as an aid to Commanding officers and political officials in the political, military and cultural education of non commissioned ranks had considerably increased.

In many cases political and party organs had, however, failed to reorganize the Komsomol organization in accordance with post war circumstances. Education, according to this directive, was badly organized in many units and too little use was being made of meetings. Political departments in the forces were therefore instructed to combat these weaknesses, to make the perfection of military and political knowledge the prime concern of Komsomol organizations and to inculcate in young people devotion to the USSR and the party and a continuous readiness to defend their fatherland.

Several voices at the Uzbek session were raised accusing the Central Committee for neglecting to give proper guidance to "primary Cells" of the Komsomol organization which were often inadequately led by young people with little education. To illustrate this point it was mentioned in the debate that of 1155 secretaries of primary cells, 400 were young men and women who were not attending school. Party directives aiming at a stricter adherence to the Statute of the Komsomol could not, therefore be fully implemented. In some cases fundamental statute rules had even been totally discarded and many members had ceased to pay membership fees. Control over these most vital primary nuclei of the komsomol in consequence was so ineffective that since the last session 54,000 members had left the ranks of the Komsomol and their whereabouts could not even be traced.

Educational and political work among members of primary cells, as admitted by most observers, was deplorably low. The ideological outlook of the rank and file remained ~~am~~ crude and distorted which was understandable considering that even the "Komsomolets Uzbekistana" the organ of Komsomol youth, had sunk to a low ideological level. The republican organization had on its register 3075 primary educational and cultural "cells" but in fact many of these did not function regularly and some had even been wound up or were working under leaders, elected not for their knowledge, cultural achievements or integrity, but in a formal uncritical way without a previous examination of their worth as leaders. Some of these leaders were in fact loath to learn anything and wallowed in their ignorance.

The standard of enlightenment among girl members of the Komsomol had also deteriorated due partly to a change in the attitude towards women of some of the boy members of the Komsomol who had become again imbued with old feudal notions and prejudices of the "bai" period and were loose in their morals and in their attitude towards marriage. Girls in individual cases had resumed at the same time wearing the paradja.

The Central Committee paid insufficient attention to the regular management of schools and to the enforcement of regular school attendance which was evidenced from the fact that about 100,000 children of school going age had been abstaining from attending school. This was no wonder considering that out of 32,000 teachers half were not even graduates of middle schools and had no proper training or qualifications as teachers.

Speakers at the Session urged to fight the bureaucratic formal attitude which was becoming prevalent among higher Komsomol ranks and to develop a spirit of leadership and a health initiative which were nowadays totally lacking in the conduct of the affairs of the Komsomol. As an instance of incompetence it was disclosed that the school for the training of Labor Reserves with a nominal roll of 500 hundred trainees (whose proper training was of considerable importance to the training of young cadres) had not been visited by responsible members of the Komsomol for five years. In the andijan regions, with its registered force of 12,000 komsomol youth of 716 educational and cultural "primary cells" half remained inactive and existed only on paper, due again to an absence of proper ~~sup~~ guidance on the part of the higher Komsomol

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command. It was also disclosed that letters and complaints addressed to Central offices of the Komsomol though duly registered often remained unanswered. The so-called "budget discipline" was slack and in 1945-46 over a million rubles had not been collected due to administrative negligence. Records and office books were likewise negligently kept.

In a recent article in "Komsomolskaya Pravda" Lomakin Secretary to the Uzbek Communist Party, summarizes the most glaring drawbacks and shortcomings in the work of the Uzbek Komsomol along the following lines.

The Komsomol youth of Uzbekistan were neglecting their primary duty in not actively participating in the execution of plans for economic rehabilitation and were not paying due attention to the needs of mechanization of agriculture which was a task of great urgency. Neither were they sufficiently vigilant in supervising the proper and full use of irrigation facilities on which the cultivation of cotton in the republic so greatly depended. They were paying slight attention to the training of skilled labor cadres among Uzbeks and seemed to be little worried that Uzbek youth constituted but a small percentage among trainees in Labor Reserve Training Centers or that of 20,000 young Tashkent workers only 3,500 were attending evening schools since more regular attendance had been interrupted by war conditions. In line with other observers Lomakin frankly admits that the level of ideological work among Komsomol ranks was below the standards set by the Party.

Against all this flood of self criticism there stands out the fact that 2,100 Uzbek Komsomol youth had been granted orders of merit in recognition of their good work in the fields of education, agriculture and industry and that the Komsomol had only recently displayed commendable activity in assisting the party in elections to the Supreme Soviet.

That not all was well within ~~the~~ the ranks of the etc. etc.

Kirghiz

It was mentioned at the Session that signs of nationalist sentiments and ~~that of an alien ideology~~ and of an alien ideology could be traced in Komsomol press organs and that the quality of Komsomol literature was in any case poor. Besides these errors members of the Komsomol "nurtured relics of feudal times and superstitions and these phenomena appeared among the Kirghiz Komsomol in most monstrous forms".

It seems that criticism levelled against republican Komsomol organizations is not so much spontaneous as it is in the nature of a reaction to Moscow directives. In confirmation of this we may mention a report on the directives adopted by the Chief Political Directorate of the Soviet Armed Forces on Komsomol matters at a conference held in September 1946.

Speeches at this conference emphasized that in the opinion of political army chiefs the Komsomol since the war had been neglecting its work and much of its activities had sunk to a low level. The Komsomol was off from the mass of young people so that there had been a falling off in recruitment of new members the final responsibility for which lay with party offices not excluding the Political Directorate itself which had done little to improve ideological work among the rank and file of the Komsomol.

These general observations and directives have now obviously reached the ears of those for whom they were intended as resolutions at republican conferences are in the main in complete agreement with Moscow directives.

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News on Cotton

About one hundred thousand hectares are to be planted in the current season to new cotton varieties developed recently by selectionists of the Uzbek republic. A large part of this experimental area is to be planted with 108-F seeds, a variety developed by selectionist Rumshevitch of the Ferghana Cotton Selection Station. This new variety was first successfully tested last year when Kolkhoz workers of the Voroshilov district of the Andijan region achieved excellent results with the new seeds doubling their average cotton yield. The 108-F variety ripens seven to eight days earlier than other cotton. New experimental varieties of cotton with larger yields and a shorter period of vegetation have also been developed by the famous cotton selectionist Kanash.

A recent report confirms that larger quantities of colored cotton will be available for Union textile mills this season as planting of colored cotton in comparison with 1945 has now greatly increased.

27 cotton and cloth mills including the Orekhovo and Ozerki Kombinat and the Molotov Mills have been set aside to manufacture textiles from naturally colored cotton. The report mentions that the new cotton fabrics are likely to be far more durable as in their processing they will not have to be chemically dyed and will consequently not suffer from chemical treatment.

New Pipe Line

Work on the oil pipe line from Leninsk to Vannovski was recently started with the popular support of laborers drafted from the Kolkhoz population of the Andijan and Ferghana districts. The completion of the line should cut expenses entailed in the transport of oil by about half, relieving at the same time the present acute congestion on Uzbek railways.

Tractors, lorries and excavators are reported to have reached the construction site. The completion of this job has been scheduled for December 1947. Engineers, however hope to start pumping oil over the new pipe line already in August (9-3-47)

Uzbekistan Wolfram

Additional wolfram deposits were recently found at Lyangar in the Nuratin hills. The initial opening of the Lyangar mines coincided with the first year of the Great War and already by the autumn of 1941 the Ural metallurgical industries started receiving from Lyangar their first consignments of wolfram concentrates. War conditions delayed, however, the intensive working and further developed of the mines which are only now coming into their own. Lyangar has an ore enriching plant, tow power substations, and a workers settlement of 200 buildings which include a school, cinema, and other amenities and is connected with the nearest station by a fine automobile road. The mining of ores has been mechanized and boring is done by compressor drills. By 1950 the mines are scheduled to produced ten times more wolfram concentrates than in 1943) 4-3-47)

Worker's settlements

To our list of new cities and industrial centers enumerated in our previous issue may be added th following:

Angren

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Angren

which has now a population of over 30,000. The coalfields of Angren during the German occupation of the Donetz Coal Basin became an important mining center known as the "Donbas" of Uzbekistan since both colliery equipment from Donbas miners were evacuated to this locality. Apart from coal mining the laborers of Angren are employed in the Angren Gas works which are to supply Tashkent with gas. A copper refining plant will shortly also be added to the industries of Angren.

Begovat

A former halting place for camel caravans on the borders of the Golodnaya Steppe, is today a fast growing city though its birth was first due to the exigencies of war time industry. A great future is confidently predicted for Begovat with its Kazakhstan Iron and Steel works, the first in Kazakhstan, its recently converted cement works and the "asbotrubny" works which supply all the needs of Central Asia in asbestos.

Chirchik

This industrial center came into being in 1932 when the Stalin Electro-chemical Kombinat was first launched on the bank of the Chirchik river near the small kishlak of Kirghiz Kulak.

The Stalin Electro-chemical Kombinat began producing chemicals in 1940 since when several other Uzbek industrial enterprises such as the Chirchik Agricultural Machinery Works have been added to the list of Chirchik industries.

The city of Chirchik has well laid out asphalted streets and a number of modern houses. With its 15 schools, two technical colleges, a theater 11 club premises, 15 libraries, several hospitals and polyclinics Chirchik has a budget of ~~15~~ 15 million rubles.

The Chirchik Electro-chemical Kombinat plans by 1950 to double its production of mineral fertilizers.

Yangiul:

Some years ~~ago~~ ago Yangiul was just a small typical Central Asian village. Today it is an industrial town whose workers are employed in numerous sugar and vegetable oil refineries, cotton mills and canneries. Candy and clothing factories are to be added to the list this year already. The town is surrounded by plantations growing cotton, sugar beet, oil seeds, rubber plants, and hemp.

The Chardzhou-Kungrad Railway.

It appears that early in 1947 the Uzbek Government proposed that survey work should immediately be started for the laying of a railway line between Chardzhou and Kungrad linking Khoresm and Karakalpakia with Central Uzbekistan. This project has now been approved by the Council of Ministers of the USSR and plans for the construction of the new railway link were recently incorporated as part of the post war five year plan. The first to be constructed will be the Chardzhou Tashkent section (310 km long). The total length of the new railway is 615 km and it will constitute a very important trunk line in the railway system of Russian Central Asia. Starting from Chardzhou the railway will follow the left bank of the Amu Darya.

Survey parties have already arrived in Tashkent. All technical plans for the construction are to be completed by the summer.

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January-March, 1948

Delays in the construction of Farkhadstroi 99

Occasional reports in the regional press on the progress of work on the Farkhad Hydro-electric project reveal considerable and unaccountable delays in the construction of a plant which had so often been heralded as one of vital importance for the development and expansion of Uzbekistan power grid. Years ago, in Feb. 1943 there was mention of 60,000 Kolkhoz workers drafted from seven regions of Uzbekistan converging with their spades and shovels to the Farkhad site to start work on a stupendous job of excavation and in December of that same year news came through that the waters of the Syr Darya had been diverted to their new bed and that conditions had ~~human~~ been created for work on the construction of the new dam. Much later, in 1946 reports on progress of work at Farkhad started coming through fairly often. In Feb. 1946, the public were informed that of 15 million cu meters of excavation work nine million and of 270,000 cu meters of concrete and cement work 120,000 had been completed. Construction of the 18 meter dam had also by that time been started and the job was expected to be completed by Spring. There were even reports that power from the Farkhad plant would be available by the end of 1946. In Oct 1946 it was reported that the mounting of the first hydro turbine had been completed and in the following November it was stated that considerable progress had been made in the excavation of the "derivation" canal across the Shirin Saisk Valley and that work was proceeding day and night to instal and make operative the first ~~ochered~~ of the hydro-electric plant early in 1947. Late in December 1946 70% of the construction at the plant was reported to have been completed and it was announced that the fulfilment of the complex construction plans would not only provide electric current but irrigate 300,000 hectares of desert in the Hungry Steppe. The dam was designed to raise the level of the Syr Darya by 20 meters and enable the river waters to reach the power house through a canal 14 kms. long and rotate the powerful turbo generators from a height of 30 meters. The opening date for the power plant was, however, again postponed with the promise that its first ~~ochered~~ would be completed by the second quarter of 1947. On the last day of 1946 it was mentioned rather vaguely that the Farkhad hydro electric plant would start generating power in 1947 to supply Tashkent, the new city of Begovat, the Uzbek Metallurgical Works and ~~souzens~~ of industrial plants in ~~thamm~~ its neighborhood.

Reports in Feb. 1947 reiterated that with the construction of the dam the level of the Syr Darya would be raised by 20 meters and that energy would be supplied to Tashkent, Chirchik and Leninabad during the second quarter of 1947. In March 1947 it was further reported that the construction of the 14 km canal bringing water to the power house would be soon completed and that water would reach its turbines at the rate of 500 cu meters per second. Work on the canal was about to be completed in record time as excavators, motor trucks railway engines and wagons had been mobilized in increasing numbers. It was cautiously mentioned however, that the construction of certain hydro ~~technical~~ technical works along the canal had been delayed. The derivation canal, for instance was to cross the bed of the Shirin Saisk river which in ~~spate~~ presented a formidable obstacle. It had also to cross in two places the railway embankment and bridges had yet to be constructed to carry the railway across the new canal. In spite of these delays press reports continued to be optimistic about the possibility of opening the canal towards the end of May. On March 15, news was broadcast that the power house was nearing completion and that generator equipment had been installed. Correspondents

dwelt on the fact that Uzbekistan was rapidly expanding its power grid. In war time many industrial enterprises were evacuated to Uzbekistan from Russia and the republic's electric power capacity doubled. The current five year plan envisaged the launching of new power plants totalling more than 300,000 kw. By 1950 Uzbekistan was to take fourth place among the 16 republics of the Union in power output.

Towards July not all of these progress reports were as glowing. The Communist Party Committee of Begovat, for instance, was accused of forgetting their sacred pledge to assist in speeding up the construction of this important development project. Begovat party units and cells had agreed to become honorary patrons over various Farkhad construction jobs but had soon forgotten their promises to render active assistance to the builders and over a period of four months their representatives had visited Farkhad only once. The last consignments of equipment for the first aggregate of the plant had arrived from Odessa in June, but unaccountable delays in construction still persisted. Excavator "brigades" were wasting their time unproductively, labor gangs were inefficiently managed and utilized and labor discipline was on the wane. Excavation sites were poorly serviced by motor transport resulting in accumulations of mounds of earth ready for removal and the work of excavators had often to be stopped in the absence of proper haulage facilities. That there was much work still to be done at Farkhad even late last autumn was clear from news items that another 16,000 laborers were due to arrive at Farkhad from Samarkand and that demands on catering organizations responsible for maintaining Farkhad labor gangs had greatly increased. These organizations were called to provide among other things 20,000 gags and deep plates, 100 large cauldrons, 5000 glasses, 500 buckets, etc. Demands for provisioning laborers were actually so great that the turnover of Khilkovo station had increased tenfold. Thus in spite of previous favorable reports, it was evident that work to complete the excavation of the canal had begun in earnest only on the 20th August 1947 when an independent GHO was instituted for the supervision of the project. Experienced "agitators" and propagandists were despatched in August to the canal zone to enlighten the labor gangs on the importance of increasing their efforts. In contrast with previous cases of mass mobilization of labor for similar large scale national undertakings, Farkhad workmen were supplied not only with picks and shovels but, it is alleged, with elaborate technical means such as modern excavators and mechanical haulage facilities. Their work was to be mechanised to a considerable degree and a target was set to remove 2,500,000 cu meters of earth monthly. Other news items contained, however, the information that little had been done for the erection of office and godown buildings of mess and kitchen premises and hospital buildings to cater to the needs of laborers.

An idea of actual conditions at the Farkhad site could be gleaned from a resolution passed on 5th Sept. 1947 at a mass meeting of 45,000 workers. The resolution contained a number of pledges: (1) to complete by September 25th all work on the derivation and subsidiary canals and thus enable the first "aggregate" of the power plant to be started not later than the 30th anniversary of the October revolution. (2) to complete the erection of the high voltage transmission line Begovat-Tashkent-Chirchik (170 kms.) (3) to build two railway bridges across the new canal and remove two water mains by November 1, (5) to accelerate the mounting of equipment with proper safeguards for "quality" of work and (6) to maintain the efficacy and high output of excavators and other mechanical contrivances.

The Farkhad "derivation" canal will be the longest in the USSR and presents a tough construction job in view of the difficult relieve it traverses and to complete it within the short time available it was recently decided to deepen it instead of maintaining its projected width.

On September 1 last year a total of 47,000 kolkhoz laborers had reported for duty at the Farkhad site. They were organized in "brigades" and were promised special premiums in money and kind for exceeding their prescribed output quotas. Seven steam, six super electric excavators and one Diesel excavator were detailed for work at Farkhad together with 400 motor lorries and 14 railway engines, each of the electrically driven excavators doing the work of 2,000 workmen. Technicians were also despatched in large numbers including a number of practising students. Three planes were to minister to the needs of the administration.

A leading article in the Pravda Vostoka appealed recently to the builders of Farkhad to complete their tasks in a true bolshevik manner. The Farkhad hydro-electric station was to inaugurate a new stage in the development of Uzbekistan's productive forces (cotton growing and the chemical and fertilizer industries) and its completion would enable the "complex" use of the waters of the Syr Darya for the production of cheap electricity and for irrigation purposes. To build the canal in record time was an urgent priority job, one of the largest in Uzbekistan in which mass labor would be involved. It was thus necessary not only to mobilize labor on a large scale but to increase mass political propaganda and to organize social competition drives on an unprecedented scale.

On 19th September an official progress report merely stated that on that date excavation work amounted to 53,900 cu meters or 67.1% of the set target but that none of the regional "brigades" had achieved their daily output quotas.

On October 19th a leading article in Pravda Vostoka mentioned among other things, that the Farkhad hydro electric plant would soon become an operating concern though the date of its final opening still remained a matter of conjecture.

A telegram from Tashkent on 22 December confirmed that work on the last kilometers of the derivation canal had been completed. The canal was being filled with water and within the next two to three days engineers were to start testing the first aggregate of the station.

No later authentic information had come to our notice at time of writing.

Extension of the Chardzhou-Kungrad Railway

In the opinion of G. Hodjiev, Director General of Movements of the Third Rank, expressed in an article published in No. 7 of the official organ of the USSR Ministry of Transport, "Railway Transport", the construction of the present alignment Chardzhou Kungrad opens up the further possibility of linking up this vital line with the railway ~~main~~ network of European Russia. Below we reprint extracts from this article bearing on this point.

"In connection with the construction of the Chardzhou-Kungrad line considerable importance attaches to the question of extending the track in future to the north west and thereby linking it with the railway network in either of the directions Makat-Alexandrov Gai, Guriev-Astrakhan or Stalingrad. Such an extension will obviate the inherent traffic bottleneck on the Chardzhou-Kungrad line and create a new railway link between the central districts of

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the Union and the districts of Central Asia. In connection with the rapid economic and cultural development of the Central Asian Soviet Republics, the question of improving transport links with them acquires real importance. Communications between the central districts of the Union on the one hand, and the Turkmen and Tajik SSR and the western provinces of the Uzbek SSR on the other are maintained along a circuitous route via Kinel-Orenburg-Tashkent - Urat'yevskaya-Kagan, involving a considerably devious journey for freight and passengers.

" If the stretch of the existing railway route from Moscow to Stalinbad Ashkhabad and Krasnovodsk is compared with the new route which will be available with the construction of the Alexandrov Gai-Kungrad-Chardzhou line, the following correlate is obtain.

Route	Extent in km. of route via Syzran-Orenburg-Tashkent	Extent in km of new route via Saratov, Alexandrov Gai-Kungrad-Chardzhou	Shortening of distance in km to be achieved by new route.
Moscow-Stalinabad	4639	3731	908
Moscow-Ashkhabad	4640	3494	1146
Moscow-Krasnovodsk	5197	4051	1146

" Thus the traffic arteries along which exchange of goods is effected between the Central districts of USSR on the one hand and the Turkmen and Tajik SSR and the western districts of Uzbekistan on the other will be shortened by about 1000 km after the extension of the Chardzhou-Kungrad line to Alexandrov Gai. Samarkand will also come within the sphere of influence of the new trunk line.

The Tuya Muyun Dam

The construction of the Chardzhou-Kungrad RR has brought to the fore the question of erecting a dam to regulate the flow of the Amu Darya at Tuya Muyun in the oasis of Khorezm, 30 kms from Hazarasp at a place where the Amu Darya flows within comparatively narrow and permanent banks which could be easily bridged by putting across a dam. The completion of this dam it is alleged would bring about a radical change not only in the "regime" of the Amu Darya but also of the entire system of irrigation in the Khorezm oasis with its million hectares of potentially fertile lands.

The population of the Khorezm oasis (the pearl of the Orient) has to keep up for the present an incessant struggle with the vagaries of the Amu Darya which annually brings down 250,000,000 cu meters of silt to further build up its delta and raise the banks of the irrigation canals in the oasis. The course of the Amu Darya near its delta is in a condition of permanent flux and changes the very configuration of the territory through which it passes. As a result there have been many cases of catastrophic inundations in the history of Khorezm causing tremendous damages. The first most ancient city of Khorezm, Kiyat was completely destroyed by flood waters. Gurganch (Kunya Urgench), its second capital suffered also eventual decay because the population of the oasis failed to maintain the proper working of its irrigation system. Recently again the republical

capital of Kara Kalpakia had to be transferred from Turtkul to Nukus. In 1945 the right bank of the river was damaged in many places resulting in the flooding of extensive areas.

Irrigation facilities in the Khorezm oasis are not easy to maintain. The irrigation system is antiquated and outworn though it does remain as a monument to several centuries of hard toil by its population. In a way the old system was perfect as it was fully in accord with the economic requirements and technical knowledge of the days when it was first built. The larger canals had, for instance, several independent intakes which enabled canal heads to be periodically cleaned without stopping the inflow of water into the distribution system. This cleaning was, however, a tremendous task involving manual labor on a colossal scale. As the headworks were often hundreds of kilometers from human habitation, the maintenance of the intakes in good order was even more difficult. At present the Khorezm oasis has 50 headworks none of which, however, have regulating facilities. In 1935 a decision was taken to mechanize the cleaning operation of the headworks and canals and on the partial introduction of mechanization the number of chigirs quickly fell from 40,000 to 20,000 and the use of manual labor for season cleaning was considerably reduced. The permanent solution of the problem of irrigation in Khorezm, it is maintained, can, however be arrived at only by the construction of a dam at Tuya Muyun and the creation of a settling reservoir in which the heavily silted Amu Darya waters would deposit their silt, thus preventing an excess of silt in the irrigation stream. The present project has as its immediate aim an improvement in the utilisation of the waters of the Amu Darya. It is advocated, however that the project should be later enlarged to include the construction of a reservoir with a storage capacity of 200,000,000,000 cu meters which would free Khorezm from the menace of recurring catasyrophic floods, would help to ~~minimize~~ eliminate the use of chigir devices on the canals, would increase the irrigated area of the oasis to 350,000 hectares and eventually permit the construction of new irrigation canals in the Kashka Darya district and in Turkmenia.

This dam would be of some importance in the development of Khorezm industry as its height (10 to 12 meters) would permit the erection of a hydro electric power plant with a capacity of 200,000 h.p. which together with the Chardzhou-Kungrad railway now under construction would, it is alleged, speedily lead to an economic transformation of the oasis and the expansion of industries in Khorezm, Tashauz, and Kara Kalpakia districts. The erection of the dam and of the power station will be greatly facilitated by the construction of the railway and would not take long to complete.

Roads

The importance to the economy of Uzbekistan of the proper maintenance of roads was recently stressed in a Pravda Vostoka leader. The growing expansion of ~~the~~ industries and of cotton in the republic, the increase in transport facilities were making, according to this paper, considerable demands of the Government Departments responsible for the maintenance and improvement of road facilities. Goods traffic was expected to increase twofold on the roads by the end of the current five year plan. The implementation of new irrigation schemes would lead also to a considerable increase in the network of roads within the newly irrigated tracts of Uzbekistan. Meanwhile, it was admitted that the existing network was not even sufficient to serve for the present movement of heavy traffic as the roads ~~were~~ were not maintained in an adequate condition of repair. The road metal on many of the highways had totally disappeared and the construction of new roads was proceeding at a very slow pace. Capital investments earmarked for road

construction last year were utilized only to the extent of 50% and of 186 kilometers of new roads only 124 had been constructed. The laying of the Tashkent-Kokand and the reconstruction of the Zerafshan and Surkhan highways under the new five year plan had either not been started at all or was inefficiently conducted. Roads in the Andizhan region were in a very bad state but plans for their improvement in the nine months of 1947 were only partially undertaken and amounted to 28% in respect of new roads, to 40% in respect of bridges, 60% of general repairs and 20% of metalling. In the Tashkent area construction plans had been executed to an extent of 50% only.

Plans for road construction and improvements "with the participation of the population" had been carried out in the Tashkent district to the extent of 36%, in the Andizhan 44% and in the Surkhan Darya district 23%. In the Karasui rayon of Tashkent laborers worked for 406 days instead of the required 18,736 and in Rajn Chirchik district 750 instead of 21,173.

The Ministry dealing with roads was short of tractors and motor transport, it had no permanent labor cadres and only half of the manpower sanctioned on its establishment. The Ministry gave little attention to the professional training of cadres of road builders or to raising their qualifications. Actually since the war there has been a setback in the training of cadres. The Motor Traction Institute and Road Sections of the Central Asia Industrial Institute have, for instance, ceased to function and scientific research on roads at appropriate republican institutions has been totally discontinued.

April-June 1948

Press

Before the Revolution, Uzbekistan is said to have had only a few newspapers and magazines "serving the interests of Tsardom's colonial policy and the local bourgeoisie". The number of newspapers published in the Uzbek language was very small and all bore the impress of a religious character on them. But since the creation of the Uzbek Republic under Soviet auspices there has been a steady growth in the number of newspapers and magazines published in the country. Already in 1925-26 newspapers with a total circulation of 519,000 copies were issued, the majority of these being in the native language. In the succeeding years, specially those covered by the Five Year Plans, the Uzbek press grew rapidly. In 1934 the number of newspapers and magazines published in the Republic amounted to 221 and 58 with an annual circulation of 101 million and one million nine hundred thousand copies respectively. It is claimed that during the period of Soviet Power more than two milliard copies of newspapers and about 30 million copies of magazines have come out.

Rural Electrification

The Uzbek republic has made immense strides in rural electrification. It occupies the 2nd place in the Soviet Union as regards the development of electric power for the countryside. Power is generated mostly from the water of rivers and irrigation canals, the cost of construction being chiefly borne by the collective farms for which these stations are largely built. The stations are small ranging in capacity from 50 to 100 kw each. By the end of 1946 27 hydro electric power stations catering to the needs of collective

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farms, domestic establishments and motor and tractor farms on the country side had been constructed and 87 more with a capacity of between 25 and 50 kw each were under construction. The figures for 1947 are not available. The current five year plan envisages the construction of a network of 1000 hydro electric power stations with a total capacity of 50,000 kw.

Among the various uses to which electric power is designed to be turned out are corn thrashing, sheep shearing, mechanical ploughing, etc.

Scientific Expeditions 1948

The Uzbek academy of Sciences was reported to have fitted out an expedition to grapple with the problem of reclaiming desert tracts and wrest fertile forest lands from the salt marshes on the lower reaches of the Amu Darya. They had succeeded in establishing an Experimentatl Section in the heart of the Hungry Steppe and hydro geologists were busy solving the problem of tapping subsoil waters for irrigating cotton plantations. Chemists were said to be studying salt lakes with the object of turning them to industrial use.

The Institute of Botany and Zoology was to undertake a systematic study of flora and fauna of Kara Kalpakia and the spurs of the Hissar range, and the Institute of Economics was to work on the question of utilising land in the Ferghana valley for further development of cotton plantations.

Civil Aviation

Tashkent was obviously the largest airport in Soviet Central Asia and in July 1947 there were days when 500 passengers were daily embarking for

Moscow, Leningrad, Novo-Sibirsk, Irkutsk, Alma Ata and Nakus. On 8 June 1948 a new line Tashkent-Sochi was inaugurated in addition to the trans Caspian connection with Baku. The flight to Irkutsk took 36 hours and to Yakutsk, a distance of 5000 kms, 48 hours.

Press reports from Tashkent usually stress the great strides made by Civil Aviation in Uzbekistan, the growth of national Uzbek cadres servicing the airlines and the extent to which aviation is used to give qualified medical assistance to the population of outlying stations. It was brought out that in five months the air medical service staff had been ~~now~~ engaged in 40 flights and assisted in the performance of 100 complex operations and took part in 750 consultations with local doctors. There were three medical air stations in Uzbekistan, Samarkand, Ferghana and Termez and last year planes of the medical service were in the air for 7000 hours the staff attending to 5000 urgent cases. The opportunities for visiting outlying stations were also used for lecturing and practical demonstrations. Aviation means were used on a fair scale to fight malaria. To get an idea of the extent of this service we may mention that one pilot last year sprayed 47,500 hectares in the malarial district of Ush Tyube near Taldy Kurgan. Aviation had also become a mass means of transport for the carriage of seeds and machinery for the needs of agriculture, especially to such remote regions as Kara Kalpakia. It was alleged, however, that conditions at the Tashkent airport continued to be backward. Tickets were sold in the open under a broiling sun. There were no benches for waiting passengers, . Time tables were not adhered to leading to considerable inconvenience for passengers.

Plans for Alma Alta, Tashkent, Frunze, Ashkhabad have now started to leave Moscow from a new airport at Lyubertzi specially equipped for the handling of heavy passenger, mail and freight planes. The first planes to leave

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Public Instruction

~~During~~ During the period of Soviet rule, the Uzbek SSR is said to have made great cultural strides. In the Tzarist days there were only 133 elementary and 25 secondary schools in the territory now comprising Uzbekistan, and only one and a half per cent of the population, mostly mullahs, merchants and Tzarist officials were literate. In the kishlaks where the bulk of the population lived there were only 52 primary schools. Before World War I there were in the country 17,299 school children of whom only 2028 were villagers.

In the whole territory of Central Asia stretching from the Caspian Sea to China, there existed only one Pedagogic Institute, namely a teacher's training school which used to pass out 25 teachers for primary schools every year.

After its incorporation with Russia, Uzbekistan continued to maintain "maktabas" and madrasas. The Tzarist government which persecuted all cultural activities among the Uzbek people tolerated religious schools. In the maktabas the children were taught through the medium of Arabic, a language strange to them. All teaching resolved itself into a mechanical reading of extracts from the Koran and the learning of prayers by rote.

The October Revolution brought about a great change in the education of the Uzbeks. Even during the years of civil war, in the period of the bitterest struggle against interventionists, the White Guards and Basmachi bands, public education was widely encouraged and diffused, and Uzbekistan has since turned from a backward to one of the culturally advanced republics of the Soviet Union. In 1924 there were 904 schools with 75,000 students on the rolls and in 1926 the number of literates aged 9 years and over was 10.2% (14.6% being boys and 6.5% being girls). In 1939 the percentage of literacy multiplied almost sevenfold. To be exact it became 67.8%.

Before the beginning of the first five year plan (1927) 1925 schools having 133,000 students on their rolls were already functioning in the republic. In the meantime the maktabas and madrasas had been abolished. During the first five year plan the government passed a law on universal compulsory primary education, and the most extensive diffusion of secondary education, the seven year course in villages and the ten year course in cities. This enactment gave a new and mighty fillip to the establishment of a network of schools. By the end of the first five year plan, their number rose to 3,847 which made it possible to send all children to school. In the academic year 1932-33, 445,000 students were reading at schools, in 1937-38 the corresponding number was 863,000 and in 1942-43 916,000. In 1947-48 1,078,000 students are estimated to be reading at various schools in the republic.

Thus during the three five year plans the number of school students in Uzbekistan has increased by 2½ times. The number of schools during this period has risen to 4,523. The school network is so spread that children residing in any part of the country, even in the remotest corners, can attend schools regularly without any difficulty.

Before the Revolution women were debarred from education and Uzbek girls had no access to the then existing schools. But the Soviet power has made it possible for girls also to receive education and in the academic year 1927-28 out of 133,000 students, girls constituted 26% and in 1938-39 the number of school girls was 42.7%.

From the second five year plan onwards seven year and 10 year courses for children have become popular in the republic. Today in Uzbekistan 2,576 seven and ten year secondary schools are functioning with 775,000 students.

Children reading at primary schools can gain easy admission, on the conclusion of their course to seven and ten year secondary schools so that they may continue their education without let or hindrance. In order to facilitate the process, 150 secondary schools, hostels and boarding schools have been built in rural areas.

As a result of the extensive development of the 7 and 10 year courses, more than a million children have passed out of seven year schools and more than 50,000 boys and girls have finished secondary education.

The enormous rise in the number of schools and children reading in them goes hand in hand with continuous rise in the quality of teaching. The introduction of the latin script in 1928 in place of the former Arabic simplified the process of reading and writing, but its supersession in 1940 by the Russian script seems to be a retrograde step, inspired by the subtle motive of "Russification". The rapid growth of schools demanded the quick preparation of teachers and the republic now has a whole army of teachers working at various schools.

In 1914, 704 teachers were working in that is now Uzbekistan, but in 1924 their number rose to 2748 and by the beginning of the first five year plan to 5,786. At the present time 38,567 teachers are working in Uzbek schools.

The preparation of teachers, the raising of their qualification and their material welfare have received great attention from the authorities.

In 1922 the first Higher Pedagogic Institution was opened at Tashkent. In 1927 a similar institution was set up at Samarkand to be followed subsequently by such institutions in Ferghana, Bokhara, Urgench, Nukus. Today the republic boasts 6 Pedagogic institutions preparing highly qualified teachers for senior classes in secondary schools. Teachers for the 5th and 7th classes are turned out by 10 training institutions. Teachers for primary schools are prepared by 19 training schools.

During the period 1942-43 Uzbekistan was covered by a network of Pedagogical institutions scattered in 20 cities of the republic and turning out annually 1500 to 2000 qualified teachers specialising in various subjects. Special course have been organised every year for raising the qualifications of teachers. In 1946 all rural teachers passed through these courses.

In 1930 a special institution was opened for raising the qualifications of teachers and in 1931 a network of evening training schools and technical schools began to be organized for city teachers and institutions for visual training and technical school for rural teachers.

Where there was not a single higher educational institution in the country before 1918 there were 29 centers of higher education with 20,000 students in 1940. Some of the more important of them are: The Central Asian Industrial Institute, the Textile Institute, the Agricultural Institute, the Institute for Irrigation Engineers and the Mechanisation of Agriculture, the Railway Engineers Institute, the Central Asian State University at Tashkent, and the Uzbek State University at Samarkand, 2 medical colleges at Tashkent and Samarkand. The latest available figure is that for the year 1946 when the number of such higher educational institution was 36.

In these institutions scientific research work is carried on intensively and scientific personnel are trained up. Besides these, there are 70 scientific institutions in the republic where scientific research work is conducted exclusively. In 1940 the number of scientific workers in them was 1500. The problems of agriculture alone engage the attention of 28 scientific research institutes and stations, including the All Union Cotton Institute, the Central

Asian Irrigation Institute, The Central Asian Silk Worm breeding institute,, The Central Stations for the protection of plants , for manures, soil science, mechanisation and agricultural technique and a number of experimental and zonal stations. In 1939 was opened the Uzbek "filial"(of USSR institutions, such as the scientific research institutes of geology, language and literature, local industry, the large astronomical observatory at Tashkent and the international meridional observatory at Kitab. In 1943 the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, based on the "filial" was established. This is the leading scientific organization in the republic, actively engaged in solving the most important tasks of the current pyatiletka (1946-1950)

The spread of education has stimulated the growth of libraries and the press. In 1940 there were 1600 libraries in the republic of which 1160 or about 72% were in the country side. The Tashkent Public Library is the largest and most important. The number of books contained in it rose from 80,000 in 1917 to 1,500,000 in 1945. Its fast collection includes all books printed about Central Asia, besides rich manuscripts (70,000) in the Persian , Arabic, and Turkish languages. In 1950 the number of libraries for the masses is expected to rise to 2,700.

As a result of the rapid rise in the cultural level of the Uzbeks during the successive five year plans, the number of Uzbek intelligentsia has grown very considerably. According to the 1939 census, the numbers of the persons who had received secondary and higher education were 241,900 and 19,400 respectively. These figures are imposing when it is recalled that before the Revolution there was not a single Uzbek who had received a University education.

From the foregoing account, which is based on official and semi-official sources, it would appear that Uzbekistan has made great strides in the field of public instruction since the Soviet came to power. But if one goes carefully through the regional press one would come across occasional articles throwing lurid light on the real state of educational affairs in the republic. Thus Pravda Nostoka, the Communist Party organ of Uzbekistan, published a leading article about the middle of April 1948 which exposes the hollowness of the claims made in official documents about the all round improvement in the republic's educational and cultural life. In this article it was alleged that Party and Soviet organisations had lately become indifferent to the work carried on in schools with the result that public instruction was in an unsatisfactory state. Although the number of schools in the republic was admittedly large, the law of universal compulsory education was generally more honored in the breach than in the observance, the position going from bad to worse every year. The situation in rural areas was specially bad, giving cause for alarm. There the education of children was, as a rule, confined to the elementary course and the seven year course was not systematically gone through. It is said that only an insignificant fraction of the students passed the secondary school state, their percentage being only two in the academic year 1946-47. The number of Uzbek girls attending schools after the 6th standard was low and there was a progressive decline in this respect. Thus, the number of Uzbek girl students reading in the 5th standard declined from 4,249 in 1945-46 to 677 in the current session. It was also complained that the quality of training imparted to the students of elementary, seven year secondary and ten year secondary schools was of a low standard. "There are not a few schools where such important subjects as physics, chemistry and foreign languages are not studied at all. In a number of Uzbek schools the mother tongue is badly taught. Up till now the Ministry of Education, Uzbek SSR has not arranged for the publication of text books of the Uzbek language and literature for 8-10 classes". The teaching of Russian was

also reported to be very unsatisfactory in Uzbek and non-Russian schools as the number of teachers was not adequate and their qualifications were in many cases not up to the required standard.

The qualifications of teachers in general were in many cases not up to the required standard.

The qualifications of teachers in general were said to be low. For instance, more than 80% of teachers for the 5th and the 6th standards had completed the ten-year secondary school course and in some cases only the seven year secondary course. Only 46% of the teachers taking the 8th to 10th classes had received a college education.

For this miserable state of affairs the Ministry of Education and its local organs were held responsible. Many higher training schools for teachers were neglected by the authorities. The Khorezm Training School for teachers did not have a single teacher who had received the master's degree in science. At the same time, no proper arrangements were made for correspondence tuition. Similarly evening schools for workers, specially those for young rural folk were not properly organized.

Public Health

Formerly medical aid was limited in scope and poor in quality. Before the Revolution it is said that there were in what is now called Uzbekistan 64 hospitals with 974 beds out of which 138 were in rural areas and 34 chemists and druggists shops including 6 in ~~viallages~~ villages. The Bokhara of the Emirs had only two centers for medical treatment with a staff of 3 doctors. The material and technical equipment of the medical institutions was extraordinarily poor. In 1914 the expenditure on public health amounted to 14 kopecks per head of the population.

Trachoma, scabies and itches were widespread among the population. Every year thousands of lives were carried off by epidemic small-pox, typhus, and cholera. Malaria was responsible for laying waste entire areas like Bokhara. Infantile mortality was very high. More than one third babies did not live for more than one year.

During the years of the five year plans the medical services in rural areas have developed and expanded enormously. The rural medical units have turned into modern medical establishments and have since become centers for promoting the health of the inhabitants of kishlaks. Today more than 500 rural medical centers are existing in the republic.

Medical aid has been organized on an ever increasing scale from year to year. Today there were in Uzbekistan 483 hospitals including 187 in cities and 296 in rural areas. Every rayon in the republic has its own hospital based on the system of rural medical units. Urban hospitals have special wards -- therapeutic, surgical, maternity and gynaecological and those for ophthalmic and nervous diseases, pediatrics, infectious diseases, tuberculosis etc. The most up to date medical technique is used for diagnosing and treating diseases. In many urban hospitals there are X-ray equipment, clinico-diagnosis, laboratory and physico-therapeutic apparatuses. The Tashkent Medical Institute comprising 24 clinics and the Samarkand Medical Institute consisting of 16 clinics enjoy well deserved recognition among the people of Uzbekistan. In these clinics equipped with advanced medical technique and served by qualified doctors work is done for raising the standard of health of the population. More than 1000 polyclinics, dispensaries and health centers are functioning in Uzbekistan. Thanks to their effort appropriate measures to check diseases are taken almost in all the big cities of the Republic. Thus in Tashkent, Samarkand, Bokhara, Andizhan, Ferghana, and other cities there are remarkable centers for treatment.

3 big physio-therapeutic centers, two at Tashkent and one at Ferghana, not only render practical medical aid but also conduct scientific research work.

In the past social diseases like tuberculosis, trachoma and skin affections of venereal origin were rife in Uzbekistan. In order to fight these diseases special institutions were opened in the republic from the earliest days of the Soviet Union. In these institutions, patients receive special treatment. Sanitary and prophylactic measures are also taken by these on a wide scale, the object being the prevention of such diseases. The drive against tuberculosis is sponsored by a scientific institute for tuberculosis, founded in 1921. This institute has turned into a powerful scientific organization relying on a network of dispensaries, health centers and sanatoria. The tuberculosis sanatorium at Shah-i-Mardan, children's sanatoria at Chim, Vuadil, Gave, Hassanbai, and the Lenin sanatorium situated in the midst of walnut orchards are true centers for the recuperation of health. As a result of these measures the incidence of tuberculosis has declined sharply.

The drive against trachoma and other ophthalmic affections has been going on an extensive scale. The Ophthalmic Dispensary of the republic, in conjunction with the Eye Clinic of the Tashkent Medical Institute, has been doing a great practical work in restoring eyesight to thousands of persons suffering from cataracts, wall-eye, trachoma and glaucoma. It systematically sends out medical units to the remotest parts of Kara-Kalpakia, Khorezm, Kashka-Darya, Surkan Darya, Bokhara and other districts. The eye specialists going with these units have performed many complicated surgical operations on the spot restoring eyesight to hundreds of blind people.

Thanks to the solicitude for the welfare of women and children hundreds of medical centers devoted to the cause have sprung up in the republic.

In the colonial days, there were 63 midwives in what is now Uzbekistan. Out of 69 maternity beds, 31 were in Tashkent, 10 in Samarkand, and the remaining 28 in the rest of the vast country. Obstetrical aid was responsible for the death of mothers and babies, in many cases. Today there are in the republic 81 maternity homes with 1130 beds and more than 222 maternity centers are functioning.

The organization of the so-called Kokkhoz maternity homes has become a remarkable phenomenon. These small lying-in centers comprising 3 to 6 beds are set up at the initiative of Kokkhoz artels in specially built premises or in the best houses in kislaks.

There is a network of children's welfare centers all over the republic. There are now about 200 consultation chambers, more than 200 permanent creches, more than 100 milk kitchens, 8 children's homes, 8 diseased children's homes, 3 sanatoria for consumptive children and 12 sanatoria for seasonal recuperation of health.

Expectant mothers from among women laborers may turn to consultation chambers for advice and medical help. The daily care taken by the workers of the consultation chambers for expectant mothers has considerably reduced the number of pathological births, post-puerperal diseases and still births.

By carrying on an extensive cultural and educational work among women the consultation chamber has changed into a kind of maternity center.

Thousands of young mothers have now got the habit of looking after their children and attending to their upbringing, thus saving many infantile lives.

The development of therapeutic and prophylactic means for children has resulted in a great decline in skin diseases, scarlet fever, diphtheria, whooping cough and dysentery among children. Small pox has been stamped out. A sharp decline in the incidence of epidemic diseases and the elimination of a number of

infectious diseases are the great achievements of the public health service in Uzbekistan. The most widespread and the most harmful disease in the republic was malaria against which a drive was launched in the early years of Soviet power.

Already in 1921, 2 malarial stations, one at Mirzachool and the other at Samarkand had been set up. In 1925 a tropical institute was opened at Samarkand and a school of tropical medicine at Tashkent. At present the republic is covered by a thick network of anti-malarial stations and points.

Of late years, the drive against the disease called leishmaniosis has assumed large proportions. Thanks to the work of Professor N. E. Khodukin, it has been placed on a scientific basis.

For the first time during Soviet power inoculation against bowel diseases have been used.

The health examination service which was formerly conducted with the help of one or two doctors in big cities only, has now grown into the State Health Inspection and Antiepidemic Organisation with a well developed network of ~~institutions~~ institutions in which more than 300 doctors and thousands of field surgeons are working. A number of scientific research institutes have been carrying out a systematic study of diseases and means of fighting them on the basis of scientific epidemiological analysis. These organisations comprise the Institute of Epidemiology and Microbiology, the Institute of Malaria and Parasitology, the Health and Hygiene Institute.

In the days of the war with Germany the medical workers of the republic passed a stiff examination with honors. They achieved brilliant results in the treatment of wounded and sick soldiers of the Soviet army. Scores of exceedingly well equipped hospitals with many thousand beds were sent out from Uzbekistan to areas near the battle front. This magnificent work of the Public Health Service in Uzbekistan was made possible with the active help of all the Uzbek people, Party and government.

The successes achieved in the line of public health in Uzbekistan were due, to a considerable extent, to the steady growth in the number of medical personnel. In the majority of cases they are trained by the educational institutions of the republic. Medical graduates are turned out by 2 institutions, The Tashkent and Samarkand Medical colleges (founded in 1919 and 1930 respectively). The training of medical personnel of intermediate qualifications is conducted by a dozen medical schools.

The Tashkent Medical College, the oldest institute of its kind in Central Asia, has during the period of its existence turned out 4814 doctors. Many of these alumni have become eminent scientists, for example, Professor Rajmidinov MD, Professor Ismailov, Prof. Umidova, Askarov, corresponding member of the Uzbek Academy of Sciences, Doctors A. Hashimov, Yunusov, Magrupov, Sadiqov, and others. The Samarkand Medical College has during the short period of its existence turned out 1640 doctors.

From an article by Kh. Zahidov,
Minister of Health, Uzbek SSR.

The Theater

The first attempt to establish an Uzbek amateur theater based on the European model was made shortly before World War I by Mahmud Khoja Bekbudi who got together a small troupe which performed his drama "Padarkush" (Patricide) in 1913. Other dramas were also put on the stage by this party.

The first regular, national theaters in Uzbekistan came into being after the Revolution. A group of amateur actors formed the first regular

theatrical company which entertained soldiers of the civil war at the front for two years, after which it established itself at Tashkent. Shortly afterwards similar theatrical companies were started at Bokhara, Ferghana and other cities. The performances had an amateurish stamp on them. The repertoire was built up under a strong nationalist influence.

In 1924 the main staff of the Tashkent Theaters along with young actors of other theaters in Uzbekistan comprising altogether 25 persons were sent to the newly organized Uzbek Theatrical studio at Moscow which got up in three years a number of plans including Gozzi's Princess Turandot, Moliere's "Miser", Gogol's "Inspector General", and the Uzbek play "I want to re-marry". During their stay in Moscow the young members of the theatrical company gained experience which helped them in improving their histrionic skill.

In 1930 a number of talented producers arose from among Uzbek actors. Among these were Mannon Ugur who remained for years the art director of a theater, Sharif Qayumov who produced a number of successful plays, for example, Gogol's "Marriage" (1938), and Lope de Vega's "The watering place for sheep" (1943), Yatim Babajanov who turned producer of a parochial theater in 1943 and the art decorator Hamid Ekramov. Some young national dramatists rallied round the theater giving a number of plays depicting the lives of the people in the past as well as in the present. Of the plays produced in the thirties, the following are noteworthy: "Tamar" (Havoc) and "Mamur wa Muhabbat, (Honor and Love, by Kamil Yashen, "Istihlal (Traitors) by Zinat Fatkhullin, "Rustam" by Umar Jan Ismailov.

The Uzbek theater went twice to Moscow in 1930 to the All Union Olympiad of national theaters and again in 1936 when the representation of Hamlet in a Uigur atmosphere elicited favorable comments from Moscow art critics. In the following years a number of Russian and classical plays were successfully performed: Ostrovsky's "Thunder" Gorky's Ego Bulychov, Othello, Lope de Vega's "the Water places for Sheep, etc.

During the war with Germany, the theater put up a number of anti-fascist plays and plays dealing with the defence of the country. One of such plans is entitled "Death to the Occupation Forces" by Yashen.

Quality and Range of Consumer Goods.

Recent investigations into the quality of consumers goods offered for sale in Tashkent shops carried out by the editorial staff of the Pravda Vestoka, the organ of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan and of the Supreme Soviet of the Uzbek SSR reveal the poor quality and narrow range of such wares, and show, in many cases, lack of genuine care on the part of industrial enterprises and business organisations for consumer's interests. A number of concrete instances have been adduced showing the poor workmanship, finish and style of goods of every day use.

Recently an intending purchaser asked for a suit of a particular size (48) in a Tashkent chain store. He was offered a suit of the well known brand "Red Dawn" tailored in a workshop under the Uzbek Ministry of Light Industries, but when he tried on the coat, he discovered that the flaps and the sleeves were of different sizes. On drawing the attention of the shop assistant, the latter with perfect unconcern, brought down a whole packet from the shelf containing suits labelled size 48. After trying on 15 coats the purchaser found to his great irritation and disappointment that they were much of a muchness each suffering from some defect or other. Besides, all the ready made cloths in that shop including ladies garments were not only old fashioned, but had some vital defect marring their beauty and utility.

Lately a peculiar kind of soap without any trade mark on it has appeared in the Tashkent bazars. Made chiefly of clay and sody with a small fat content, this soap crumbles when handled and clothes washed with it remain dirty.

Consumers justly complain of the bad quality of cigarettes manufactured by the Tashkent Tobacco Factory. They are said to leave a deposit on the tongue, a burning sensation in the throat and they are slow to burn, the tobacco having a high moisture content. Besides, the cigarette paper lets in air and the filling is not uniform; in some cases it is too tight and in others too loose. Tins containing even the best quality of cigarettes do not have tinfoil nor are the cigarettes wrapped in tissue paper. Instead coarse paper is used for both. Even the quality of the best and most widely advertised brand, "Belomarkanal" is inferior to that of second rate cigarettes.

From all this it is clear that in spite of the panegyrics sung in season and out of season, to the "glorious" achievements of the Soviet economic and political system in all spheres of life, there remains much to be accomplished before Uzbekistan can come up even with a second rate "capitalist" country in the commercial or industrial field.

The Teaching of Foreign Languages

Although the importance of knowing foreign languages is realized and much attention is, apparently, paid to the subject, the teaching of foreign tongues is poorly organized in Uzbekistan. Out of 2320 secondary schools (including both the categories, the one having ten year and the other a seven year course) only 689 or about 18% have some sort of arrangements for teaching foreign languages. It is interesting to note that German is studied more than any other foreign language. English is taught at 53 and French at 8 schools only. English and French are not taught at all in the schools of the Kara Kaplakia ASSR and the Surkhan Darya and Khorezm districts. But since the language teachers are all, without exception, non-Uzbek nationals unacquainted with the Uzbek language, the medium of instruction is Russian in which the students do not feel at home. To make confusion worse confounded, the teachers themselves are, in many cases, not properly qualified. They know neither the language nor the art of teaching well. There are estimated to be 449 teachers of foreign languages out of whom only 163 received higher education and 193 read but could not complete the course of higher education. The rest have not only no received any special training, they have not even had a full course of secondary education. In many cases, sciologists and free lances take up teaching foreign languages as a career.

Although courses of lectures on the techniques of translation, grammar, vocabulary and other subjects were given at Tashkent, last year only 40 out of 135 teachers of foreign languages in the Uzbek capital attended these. Besides the lukewarm interest of the teachers themselves, there is another factor which hampers the development of a cadre of qualified teachers, namely the paucity of schools training teachers in foreign languages. The Foreign Language Faculties of the Tashkent Pedagogic Institutes for daytime and evening classes turned out only 27 teachers of foreign languages in 1947. , and, as at present constituted they cannot satisfactorily perform the task assigned to them, for the teachers on the staff are not all fully qualified. Only three out of 28 teachers have a university degree, the rest having no degree or diploma. The authorities of the Institutes do not try to attract students of Uzbek nationality to the Foreign Language Faculties.

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No text books of foreign languages have yet been written for Uzbek schools, and there is not a single school dictionary of foreign words for Uzbek schools. Methodological literature for teachers is also wanting.

According to a decision of the USSR Council of Minister, a Foreign Language Institute for 600 persons will be opened at Tashkent by Oct. 1 1948. This Institute will be established on the basis of the Foreign Language Faculties of the Tashkent Pedagogic Institute for daytime and evening classes. In the opinion of Mr. Anisimova, scientific collaborator at the Institute of Pedagogic Sciences, the best teachers should be drawn to the Institute in order that it may prove a real success.

It is alleged that the Uzbek SSR Ministry of Education and the District and Urban Sections of the Department of Public Instruction have not given adequate attention to the questions of teaching foreign languages at schools. The Ministry of Education is accused of not starting regular classes in foreign languages at the Tashkent, Samarkand, Bokhara, Ferghana and Nukus Institutes for rounding off the training of teachers and of not paying proper attention to the training of teachers in foreign languages.

Delays in Unloading Wagons.

Complaints were voiced in the regional press about the delays in loading and unloading goods wagons in Uzbekistan with considerable loss to the republic's national economy. It is said that wagons are detained at sidings for a longer period than is necessary. A typical instance adduced in this connection is that of the Tashkent railway where last year wagons remained idle for 737,000 wagon hours more than the stipulated period which means that about 7000 ~~man-months~~ wagons capable of moving more than 135,000 tons of goods remained idle at sidings on account of faulty unloading. The undertakings concerned had to pay demurrages to the railway amounting to 3,687,292 rubles. On account of lack of proper organization and coordination in the matter of unloading wagons at sidings the Farkhad Hydro electric Station and the Begovat Metallurgical Works had to pay a demurrage of 466,233 rubles to the railway in 1947.

In view of the necessity of transporting more and more coal the demands on wagons are growing. But the loading and unloading of wagons being defective wagons are often detained unnecessarily and for this the Coal Trust, "Uzbek Ugol" had to pay a demurrage of 20,000 rubles to the railway in 1947. The Trust has not mended its ways in the current year during the first two months of which it had to pay a further demurrage of 19,000 rubles.

Cotton mills are also defaulters in this respect — a fact to which due attention is not paid. For example recently two cotton mills paid about 8000 rubles to the Tashkent railway as demurrage.

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